

# THE SCHOOL REVIEW

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## EDUCATIONAL NEWS AND EDITORIAL COMMENT

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### SCIENCE IN SECONDARY SCHOOLS

FIVE REPORTS of national committees have discussed science education during the past twenty years: (1) *A Program for Teaching Science*, the Thirty-first Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, Part I, 1932; (2) *Science in General Education*, Progressive Education Association, 1937; (3) *Redirecting Science Teaching in the Light of Personal-Social Needs*, American Council of Science Teachers, National Committee on Science Teaching, 1942; (4) *Education for All American Youth*, Educational Policies Commission, 1944; and (5) *Science Education in American Schools*, Forty-sixth Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, Part 1, 1947.

*Latest report* A new report, "Science on science in Secondary Schools Today," appears in the *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals* for Jan-

uary, 1953. This report was planned and prepared under the guidance of the Committee on Special Bulletins of the National Science Teachers Association (the largest, most comprehensive, and most active association for science teachers).

The purpose of the bulletin is best expressed in the last paragraph of the Foreword written by Robert H. Carleton, executive secretary of the association:

Adding up one word and another, what we seem to be striving for throughout efforts with this issue of the *Bulletin* is the development of greater teamwork by high-school principals and their science teachers. We in the science classrooms need the stimulation, encouragement, and leadership of our principals. No one is in a more favorable position than the high-school principal when it comes to opportunities for on-the-job stimulation of professional improvement. No one is more zealous than the science teacher in wanting to see a sound and effective program of science instruction for all boys and girls. The opportunities for educational improvements in science are numerous, they are practical,

they are inexpensive in terms of time and money. Through joint efforts in the better utilization of the programs, services, and publications of professional societies for science teachers, these teachers and their principals can make tremendous headway along the path toward more functional, more effective education for all.

The bulletin is divided into five chapters. Chapter i, "Science Education in American High Schools," deals with objectives of science education as seen by the administrator and the teacher, the trends in course offerings and enrolments, science in large schools and in small schools, and the implications that the great increase in the teaching of elementary science has for high-school science.

Chapter ii is concerned with "Curriculum Problems and Policies in Science Education." There is a separate article upon the trends in each of the science courses now taught in high school. The articles in this chapter should be of special interest to administrators since they provide a guide for the evaluation of science courses.

Changes in objectives and in theories of learning have outmoded the practices of the traditional laboratory. Chapter iii, "Experience and Experiment," deals with the role of the modern laboratory in science education.

Chapter iv, "Aids to Instruction in High-School Science," discusses the role of the textbook, workbook, laboratory manual, audio-visual aids, radio, television, science fairs, and evaluation of science instruction.

The last chapter deals with special problems in high-school science education, such as teaching scientific attitudes and methods, the atomic age, conservation education, and America's need for more scientists and engineers.

In the writer's judgment this report is one of the best that has been made in the field of science education. Separate copies of the January, 1953, *Bulletin* in which it appears may be obtained at \$1.50 a copy from the National Association of Secondary-School Principals, 1201 Sixteenth Street, Washington 6, D.C.

*Facilities for science-teaching* Another contribution to science-teaching has been made by a Special Committee of the National Science Teachers Association under the chairmanship of Philip G. Johnson, specialist for science in the Office of Education. The report of this committee is published by the Federal Security Agency, Office of Education. It is entitled *Science Facilities for Secondary Schools* (Misc. No. 17), and it may be purchased from the Government Printing Office, Washington 25, D.C., for \$0.25 a copy.

It has been many years since the publication of any authoritative report on the planning of classrooms and other facilities for science classes. In the meantime, many of the objectives of high-school science courses and the course offerings themselves have been modified. The laboratory used to be thought of as a place where students

followed through the prescribed directions in a laboratory manual. With the change in our ideas of the function of laboratory experiences in science has come a change in the requirements for proper facilities so that the classroom and laboratory become part of a single, unified body of experiences. A few excerpts from the Foreword illustrate the purpose and scope of the report on *Science Facilities for Secondary Schools*:

This publication has been prepared to give help in planning space and other instructional facilities for science in secondary schools. It is anticipated that the suggestions will be helpful not only to science supervisors and teachers, but also to school administrators, architects, boards of education, and school housing specialists, who share the responsibility for planning and developing school facilities for science instruction.

... *Science Facilities for Secondary Schools* presents those principles which are basic to the planning of instructional facilities for science at all levels of elementary and secondary schools. However, the principles are discussed primarily with reference to the small high schools because there are many such schools and sources of information for these schools are relatively few and inaccessible. The bibliography calls attention to sources for additional information and suggestions.

The members of this committee were exceedingly well qualified to prepare this much-needed publication. It answers most of the problems encountered by teachers and administrators in planning science facilities for new buildings or for remodeling the facilities already available.

*Biology in high school* School administrators and high-school teachers of biology will find much useful information about trends in the teaching of biology in *The Teaching of General Biology in the Public High Schools of the United States* (Bulletin 1952, No. 9, Federal Security Agency, Office of Education). This study, made by W. Edgar Martin, specialist for biological science, in the Division of State and Local School Systems in the Office of Education, reports on the courses in biological science offered in public high schools, enrolments in general biology, number of teachers of general biology, organization of courses, nature of laboratory work, laboratory and supplementary facilities, the equipment used in teaching the course, appropriations for equipment and supplies, and innovations and problems related to the teaching of general biology. The findings are based on data collected for the school year 1949-50, from a representative sampling of the nation's public high schools.

The study shows that biology is the only science course which has had consistent increases in the high-school enrolments throughout the period for which information is available. Traditionally, biology has been a tenth-grade subject and still is taught in that grade in the great majority of schools. There is some evidence, however, that biology is being increasingly taught in Grade IX. This shift has been brought about by the tremendous increase in the amount of science taught in the

elementary school. The major emphasis of the courses in Grades VII-IX has been on physical science. Since many high-school administrators feel that there is too much overlapping in these grades, some schools have eliminated general science as a required subject in Grade IX and have substituted general biology. This trend is shown in the following figures: general biology is required in the college-preparatory curriculum in 41.1 per cent of the schools, 36.6 per cent require it in the vocational curriculums, and 32.8 per cent require it in the general-education curriculum.

When biology was first introduced into the high-school curriculum in about 1910, the course consisted of a series of short courses in botany, zoölogy, and physiology. A survey conducted by this editorial writer as part of the National Survey of Secondary Education in 1932 showed that this method of organization still persisted in 80 per cent of the courses of study analyzed. The courses were essentially descriptive in character, and most of the student's time was spent in memorizing details of structures. Principles were usually treated in separate topics at the end of the course and had little relation to the earlier parts of the course. The application of biological principles for a better understanding of the problems of living was not considered.

Interestingly enough, the present study shows that 12.6 per cent of the schools reporting still base their

courses upon specialized treatments of botany, zoölogy, and physiology. The course organization which occurs most frequently, in 76.5 per cent of the schools offering biology, is that based on principles related to the whole field of biology. This type of organization lends itself to a problem treatment in which the generalizations of biology are in the focus of attention and the morphological details which formerly supplied the main subject matter of the course are reduced to those which are necessary to make the generalizations meaningful.

If the data collected represent what is really happening in the field of biology, we have indeed witnessed a revolution. However, recent observations made by this writer of the teaching of biology in high schools throw some doubt on the probability that such a revolution has occurred.

The difficulty has been, and still is, that teachers are prepared by the universities in the special subjects of botany, zoölogy, and physiology rather than in the field of biology. A teacher prepared in zoölogy is still inclined to teach zoölogy rather than an integrated course in biology. The writer finds that the majority of the older teachers who taught the specialized subject for years are not at all happy about teaching biology. They still long for the good old days when a month could be spent upon learning all the details about a frog and a crayfish and many hours could be spent by the pupil in dissecting the animal and

making drawings of what he was supposed to see. The writer suspects that many of the schools reporting that biology is organized around the principles of biology are giving lip service to a trend rather than reflecting an actual shift in emphasis.

*Basing the course on principles* The federal bulletin shows also that 10.9 per cent of the courses are based on topics selected for importance in daily living. A course which is organized somewhat along these lines and which makes a considerable departure from the traditional biology courses has been published by the Board of Education of the City of New York under the title *General Biology: 10th Year* (Curriculum Bulletin, 1951-52 Series, No. 7). The course is divided into nine units: "Why We Study Biology," "Why We Behave the Way We Do," "How the Body Works," "Nutrition," "Preventing and Controlling Disease," "Microorganisms and Household Pests," "Reproduction," "Heredity," and "The Pageant of the Past."

Each unit is divided into problems, and each problem is focused on an understanding of some human activity. For example, in the unit, "Why Do We Behave the Way We Do," the problems are as follows:

What activities can we perform at birth?  
What new activities do we learn as we grow up?  
How do we learn something new?  
How do memory and reasoning depend on brain structure?

What is meant by intelligence?  
How do emotions affect learning?  
Why do people react differently to the same situation?  
Why is adolescence considered an awkward age?

*Two useful textbooks* Quite often, forward-looking courses of study are ahead of the progress made by textbooks. When this happens, the course of study is not likely to be put to effective use because teachers, as a rule, are accustomed to following some basic textbook. When making surveys, the author has found many school systems with a well-formulated course of study. Classroom visitation, however, showed that the teachers were still following some basic book.

Two recently revised textbooks in biology, however, appear to be focused upon the same kinds of outcomes as the recommended New York course. *Basic Biology for High Schools* by Carroll Lane Fenton and Paul E. Kambly (Macmillan Co., 1953) includes the following units: "Living Things and Their World," "The Make-up of Organisms," "Groups and Kinds of Organisms," "Foods for the Living World," "Feeding the Animal Kingdom," "Organs, Systems, and Health," "Producing New Organisms," "Old Characters and New Ones," "How Living Things Have Changed," "Communities and Control," and "Conserving Our World and Ourselves."

*High School Biology* by Charlotte

L. Grant, H. Keith Cady, and Nathan A. Neal (McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1952) includes the following useful units: "The Out-of-Doors in Autumn and Spring," "Food for Living Things," "Food for Body Building," "Body Processes at Work," "Living Things in Action," "Keeping the Body Healthy," "The Story of New Life," "Continuing Life on the Earth," and "Plants and Animals in Balance."

A comparison of the content of the two books and the New York course of study shows a close similarity. With a good course of study to set up the problems and to suggest appropriate experiences with the textbooks and other materials, it would seem that the teaching of biology is finally reaching the stage of maturity.

#### THE MCCARRAN ACT AND PROGRESS IN SCIENCE

THE MCCARRAN ACT, designed to control immigration, has aroused a great deal of controversy. Scientists have protested vigorously against the provisions of the act because it bars the entrance of some foreign scientists to this country. Some foreigners have even been denied visas to enter this country to attend scientific conferences and to share their knowledge with our own scientists. Appearing before the President's Commission on Immigration, Alan T. Waterman, director of the National Science Foundation, warned that America is not self-sufficient when it comes to

scientific talent. To illustrate his point, he said:

Radar, the atomic bomb, jet aircraft, and penicillin were perfected in the United States on the basis of discoveries and research in foreign countries to which we were given ready access. The extent to which the United States needs to draw scientific knowledge from abroad is indicated by an analysis of the nationality of scientists awarded the Nobel prize. During the first twenty years of the Nobel prizes, a total of forty-three awards were made in physical sciences. Fifteen of these went to Germany, twenty-six to other European nations, and only two to Americans. None of the seventeen awards in medicine and physiology went to Americans. Of the sixty awards in the physical sciences in the years 1921-49, forty-four went to European scientists, two to Asian scientists, and fourteen to Americans. Although a considerable number of American scientists have received Nobel prizes, the fact remains that to date three out of four of these awards in science have gone to scientists outside the United States.

It is unfortunate but true that the majority of Americans believe that we are the best in every line of endeavor. Scientists are in agreement that a large fraction of the basic discoveries in science have been made in other countries. It is fairly easy to get funds for some piece of directed research in which the problem to be solved has some practical value. It is much more difficult to get support for basic research. Yet it is true that applied science is based upon the discoveries of pure science in which the sole objective was that of discovering more about the ways in which nature operates. If we are going to bar foreign

scientists from our shores, our scientific progress will suffer in the realms both of pure science and of applied science.

#### JUVENILE DELINQUENCY AND NARCOTICS

WRITING in the November, 1952, issue of the *NEA Journal*, Roma Gans, professor of education at Teachers College, Columbia University, discusses the problem of juvenile delinquency. The extent and spread of juvenile delinquency is shown in the following paragraphs from her article:

Approximately one million children are getting into trouble with the law each year. Most of these youngsters are between the ages of ten and seventeen. According to FBI statistics for the years 1945 through 1951, boys and girls under eighteen years of age were arrested for such crimes as criminal homicide, auto theft, breaking into and entering property, arson, rape, and possessing and carrying weapons.

Even if the number of juvenile offenders does not increase proportionally with the increase in population, the number of boys and girls who will be in trouble with the law ten years from now if the present rate in delinquency continues will be 1,500,000. And this staggering figure may be optimistic in light of the data of juvenile courts which reveal an increase of 19 per cent in number of cases handled from 1948 to 1951.

One aspect of this problem is the alarming increase in the number of young persons in their teens and early twenties who are arrested for violation of the narcotic laws. This problem is especially acute in the larger cities. A manual giving basic information for

teachers concerning narcotics is published by the California State Department of Education. The book, written by Jesse Feiring Williams, is entitled *Narcotics: The Study of a Modern Problem*.

This manual is divided into two parts. Part I supplies information about narcotics—what they are, what effects they have, how a narcotic addict may be recognized; cure of drug addiction, and steps in narcotic control. The second part deals with suggestions for teaching about narcotics—questions on narcotics, how pupils can co-operate in narcotic control, activities for learning about narcotics, and instruction about narcotics at various grade levels. While some states have laws regarding the inclusion of some content concerning narcotics and alcohol, that the teaching has not been generally successful is shown by the increases in drug addiction. This pamphlet provides many suggestions for making the program more effective.

#### MATERIALS USEFUL FOR TEACHERS

*To help in teaching about race* Educators will be interested in a new approach to the study of race relations as presented in a bulletin published by UNESCO, entitled *What Is Race?* This new approach is indicated by a foreword:

The object of this booklet is to present, in a popular way, certain essential information about the biological aspects of race. Of recent years, discoveries in the field of

human genetics and anthropology have thrown new light on the old problems of how races are formed and the nature of the difference between them. It was felt that certain provisional conclusions reached by scientists who work on such problems could be put into nontechnical language and illustrated—often in a necessarily oversimplified form—so as to make them more easily intelligible to the layman. An acquaintance with the more important of these conclusions is necessary for the proper understanding of the race question as it now exists. At the same time, it should be pointed out that what is stated in the pages that follow does not claim to cover the field of the social sciences or that of race relations. Nor is it specially concerned with social problems and educational measures, which vary in different countries according to local conditions.

The booklet is divided into three parts: (1) "Is There a Pure Race?" (2) "Is There a Superior Race?" and (3) "Are There Unchangeable Race Differences?" Answers to these questions are based upon the effects of the processes of mutation, selection, adaptation, migration, and isolation. The booklet is illustrated with diagrams which present these processes in simplified form. It can be understood easily by pupils of Grade X.

The Appendix is especially valuable. It includes a series of statements regarding the nature of race and race differences which have been formulated and accepted by physical anthropologists and geneticists of international reputation. It also includes some suggestions for group discussions and a bibliography of useful books.

This booklet should be of great

value in the study of high-school biology as an example of how the principles of biology may be applied in the solution of problems of great importance in promoting international good will and understanding. It may be obtained at \$1.00 a copy from the United States sales agency for UNESCO publications, Columbia University Press, New York 27, New York.

*The world we live in* Beginning with the issue of December 8, 1952, *Life* magazine started the publication of a series of twelve articles called "The World We Live In." This series they describe as follows:

A series of major articles, appearing at regular intervals over the course of the next two years, will depict the violent drama in which the planet Earth came to be and the infinitely varied yet ordered pattern of its physical structure and abundant life. For this series, a special team of editors and reporters, aided by the world's best scientific authorities, will direct a score of painters and photographers in an original summation of the nature of things. The continuing text will be written by Lincoln Barnett, author of *The Universe and Dr. Einstein*. "The World We Live In" will be scientifically accurate yet presented in a clear and dramatic way readily understood by readers without scientific background.

The first of the articles, "The Earth Is Born," describes the birth of our planet, the chief events in its past and present life, and its eventual death. Succeeding articles will deal with "The Three Realms of the Physical

World" (the sea, the land, and the atmosphere), "The Growth and Spread of Life over the Earth," "The Extremes of Earthly Environment," and "The Far Frontiers in Space beyond the Earth." Two of the articles have now appeared. They live up to the advance billing in every respect.

*Teachers as leaders of groups* "Group action," "group dynamics," "group discussion," and similar phrases are frequently met in the educational literature of the day. But there is no clear understanding of the effective means for carrying on the process so that necessary policies and decisions can be reached through the action of the groups concerned. Two pamphlets which will help train persons to handle the responsibilities of leading group discussion have recently been received at the editorial office.

The first is *Teachers Prepare for Discussion Group Leadership*, written by Stephen M. Corey, of the Horace Mann-Lincoln Institute of School Experimentation at Teachers College, Columbia University; Paul M. Halverson, of Syracuse University; and Elizabeth Lowe, a classroom teacher in the public schools of Fair Lawn, New Jersey. The pamphlet is published by Teachers College, Columbia University, New York 27, New York, and sells for \$0.60 a copy.

The booklet describes a one-day training session that was planned to improve the ability of teacher leaders

of discussion groups. The training "was designed for a particular kind of total school staff conference" at West Orange, New Jersey. The first of the book's three chapters tells about the background of the project; chapter ii describes the training session and the training materials; chapter iii reports the evaluation data that were obtained for appraising the results of the entire project. An appendix presents a transcription of the recorded "training tape" and various evaluation forms.

The second publication is entitled *Discussion Guide for Teachers of English*, and it was prepared by a committee of the National Council of Teachers of English under the chairmanship of Kate V. Wofford, of the University of Florida. According to the Introduction:

The pamphlet is divided into two sections. Part I is the presentation of discussion as a democratic method of finding solutions to problems. Reasons are given for the use of discussion in our democratic society, and a case is presented for its use by teachers. Moreover, an effort is made to point up the techniques used by successful discussion groups, with special emphasis upon the roles assumed and played by the individuals who compose them. Finally, the section closes with a report of a discussion group who took the materials presented in this pamphlet and experimented with them. The report is not only suggestive of the use to which the pamphlet can be put, but it has also the advantage of clarifying both the content of the discussion as well as its process.

Part II deals with a series of problems suitable to discussion groups by teachers interested in the teaching of English.

This pamphlet is sold for \$1.00 by the National Council of Teachers of English, 8110 South Halsted Street, Chicago 21, Illinois.

Both pamphlets are of exceptional value to all persons concerned with the training of discussion leaders.

#### CONFERENCES AND WORKSHOPS FOR ADMINISTRATORS

**M**AKING ADMINISTRATION serve our educational needs is the theme of a series of related conferences and workshops to be held at the University of Chicago during July and August. The Midwest Administration Center, with Francis S. Chase as director, is sponsoring the conferences in collaboration with the American Association of School Administrators and other institutions and organizations. This is part of a nation-wide Cooperative Program in Educational Administration supported by the W. K. Kellogg Foundation.

The conferences will be of interest to principals, supervisors, superintendents, members of state departments of education, faculty members of institutions preparing administrators, school-board members, and citizens interested in schools. Each conference will be centered on problems arising in some aspect of administration. The topics to be dealt with are scheduled as follows:

July 6-7, Developing Leadership for Improved Instruction

July 13-14, Improving Consultative Services to Schools

July 20-21, Improving the Effectiveness of Boards of Education

July 27-28, Creating Effective Organization for Education

August 3-4, Developing Sound Finance Policies for Education

August 10-11, Developing Public Understanding and Responsibility for Education

For persons who wish to secure credit for conference participation and additional study, there will be a workshop on "Educational Administration and Supervision" (Education Course 330A, B, C). Attendance at any two of the conferences and completion of related workshop requirements will earn one course credit. A participant may earn one, two, or three course credits, depending upon the number of conferences attended and of related requirements completed.

Copies of the conference and workshop programs, with instructions for securing living accommodations, may be obtained from either Francis S. Chase, director of the Midwest Administration Center, or Herman G. Richey, secretary of the Department of Education, both at the University of Chicago, 5835 Kimbark Avenue, Chicago 37, Illinois.

WILBUR L. BEAUCHAMP

## WHO'S WHO FOR APRIL

*Authors of news notes and articles* The news notes in this issue have been prepared by WILBUR L. BEAUCHAMP, professor of the teaching of science at the University of Chicago. THE UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO COMMITTEE ON EDUCATIONAL TELEVISION reports an investigation of the University's responsibility for, and opportunities in, educational television, with specific attention to aims, principles of operation, criteria of success, and suggestions for programs. Because of its timeliness and importance, the report takes up more space than can usually be allotted to a single article. JONATHON C. MCLENDON, assistant professor of education at Duke University, Durham, North Carolina, points out that when students' scores on the same tests are compared and when the enlarged scope of the subject is considered, teachers of high-school English are found to be doing as good a job as, if not a better one than, did their counterparts of years gone by. WALTER V. KAULFERS, professor and curriculum specialist in language arts at

the College of Education, University of Illinois, reviews the per cents of high-school students enrolled in foreign languages in the individual states and breaks down the figures for the various languages. CHARLES BRODSKY, chairman of the social-studies department of Central Commercial and Technical High School, Newark, New Jersey, distinguishes between unsuccessful and successful teachers, pointing out that the good teacher must constantly be on the alert for new methods and presentations to inspire and interest today's student, who has different attitudes toward learning and culture than he himself or previous students may have had. CLAYTON M. GJERDE, associate professor of education at San Diego State College, and MARVIN D. ALCORN, professor of education at the same institution, present a list of selected references on extra-class activities.

*Reviewers of books* L. A. VAN DYKE, professor of education, State University of Iowa. CARROLL D. CHAMPLIN, professor of education, Pennsylvania State College.

## TELEVISION AND THE UNIVERSITY

### UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO COMMITTEE ON EDUCATIONAL TELEVISION



**EDITORIAL NOTE:** In 1945, television came out of the laboratory and into the lives of the American people. In that year the Federal Communications Commission began its allocation of channels to those who applied for them, assuming that some 394 station assignments were possible. But when these stations began to operate, it was discovered that engineering predictions needed correction. Furthermore, new technological advances indicated that the existing transmitting and receiving equipment might soon become obsolete. Late in 1948, therefore, the FCC announced that it would allocate no more channels until it had had time to study the whole matter.

The decision to delay further allocation gave educational institutions opportunity to organize their forces and to present the case for the reservation of some channels for noncommercial use. A Joint Committee on Educational Television was formed to mobilize resources and present testimony to the FCC. Despite the active opposition of the commercial broadcasters, the educational forces were so articulate and forceful that the FCC gave them first its attention and then its support. On April 11, 1952, it announced that it would once again be-

gin allocation of stations but that a number of them would be reserved for one year, awaiting applications from educational institutions. After this period of one year, the reserved channels would presumably be released for commercial use. The FCC also added a new band for broadcasting, which is not receivable on most present sets. As a result, it became possible to allocate a total of 2,053 new stations, of which 242 were reserved for noncommercial operation.

In Chicago, the one remaining channel—Channel Eleven—on the present band was reserved for educational television. This reservation is in force only until June 2, 1953. A city-wide committee made up of representatives of numerous educational agencies in the area has been exploring the possibilities of operating a television station on Channel Eleven. Chancellor Lawrence A. Kimpton, of the University of Chicago, and the University's Board of Radio felt that the responsibilities and opportunities of the University in the operation of such a station should be explored by a faculty Committee on Educational Television. This committee was set up and charged with the following duties:

First, to examine the concept of educational television and recommend any general

policies which should govern the University's participation in its operation;

Second, to explore the resources of the University, its allied agencies, and the community in order to develop program ideas which would be sound educationally and which would use the medium of television to the best advantage.

The Committee had only a short time to make its study and prepare its report, and it did not originally plan to publish the document. However, members of the Editorial Committee of the *School Review* believe that the report is of great general interest and that it contains many ideas of value to other groups concerned with educational television. The Committee on Educational Television and Chancellor Kimpton consented to the suggestion that a major portion of the report be presented here. The original document has been abbreviated for publication,

particularly by selecting only a sample of the program ideas that were included.

The members of the Committee on Educational Television are:

CYRIL O. HOULE, *chairman*, Professor of Education and Dean of University College

REUEL N. DENNEY, Associate Professor of Social Sciences in the College

DONALD HORTON, Assistant Professor of Sociology

JOHN O. HUTCHENS, Professor and Chairman of the Department of Physiology

WARREN C. JOHNSON, Professor and Chairman of the Department of Chemistry, Associate Dean of the Division of Physical Sciences, and Scientific Adviser on the Argonne Laboratory

CARL H. KRAELING, Professor of Oriental Languages and Literature and Director of the Oriental Institute

HENRY W. SAMS, Associate Professor of English in the College and Director of the Summer Quarter

## FINAL REPORT OF THE COMMITTEE ON EDUCATIONAL TELEVISION

### THE UNIVERSITY'S OBJECTIVES IN ENGAGING IN TELEVISION

Television is a great new instrument which a university may use in achieving its traditional objectives.

In broad terms, those objectives are commonly thought to be (1) the acquisition of knowledge, (2) the preservation of knowledge, and (3) the transmission of knowledge. In transmitting knowledge, there are three groups with which the university works directly: those young people who are to be educated to carry on scholarly traditions, those young people who are to be educated for the professions and for

responsible leadership in society, and such adults as wish to further their education. Less directly but equally powerfully, the university also "transmits knowledge" by being a constant influence for good in society. It takes its place among those agencies which act to improve the culture, the quality of living, and the rational accomplishment of social ends. Intellectually speaking, it is foremost among these agencies and therefore must accept some responsibility for leading them.

### THE ACQUISITION OF KNOWLEDGE

The Committee believes that television can have a limited use so far as re-

search is concerned. The study of the communication process now carried on in several parts of the University will certainly be enhanced by the opportunity for direct access to television programming and controlled audience research. Furthermore, television may be of assistance in appealing for data or for materials. It may even provide the medium for organizing fairly systematically a group of observers or workers who can provide data to research scholars, paralleling in this way the work of the Harvard Observatory in astronomy. While it is possible that in these ways individual discoveries of marked importance may be made, the Committee believes that research activities could and should take up only a modest amount of time in the total program offering of Channel Eleven.

#### THE PRESERVATION OF KNOWLEDGE

The television screen has little in common with the library, the museum, or the other agencies by means of which the modern university insures that the records of knowledge be preserved. The only value which television would appear to have in meeting this goal is in the file of films and other material which might be created as records of past programs or sources of future ones. This file may prove to be of great importance, and television may turn out to have a great influence on the production of educational films. The Committee feels, however, that the technological preservation of

knowledge will be only an incidental by-product of Channel Eleven. On the other hand, preservation of knowledge in the sense of giving it currency among people outside of universities is one of the great potentialities of television.

#### THE TRANSMISSION OF KNOWLEDGE

It is to the third of the three great objectives of the university that television will make its outstanding contribution. This new invention is a medium of communication of impelling power. It has come upon us all so recently that its significance is hard to grasp. Already the citizens of greater Chicago possess 1,250,000 television sets, and the saturation point is as yet not near. No medium of print—not even the *Chicago Tribune*—comes close to this figure. For the purposes of education, the spread of this new medium of communication is of crucial significance. Television is to the public lecture or appearance as the printed book was to the manuscript. The number of persons who can see and hear an individual speaker or a demonstration has achieved a new order of magnitude. Furthermore, the singular flexibility of the camera and its capacity for detailed and direct observation (already demonstrated in the operating rooms of hospitals) gives to television a qualitative as well as a quantitative advantage.

If the transmission of knowledge is the chief end of educational television, it is appropriate to look more closely

at the use which might properly be made of it by the University of Chicago.

It will not, of course, play a large part in the education which the University gives on its own Quadrangles to those who are preparing to be scholars or to enter the professions or other pursuits of modern citizenship. Our students will presumably look and learn, but, in doing so, they will ordinarily be a part of the larger public which is being served. The production of programs or the operation of the station may have some value for some of our students, but the number will almost certainly be small.

On the other hand, we might reasonably hope that, over the years, educational television may improve the caliber and increase the number of the students who come to us. If Channel Eleven is successful in taking ideas out into the community, if it can help parents to raise their children more intelligently, if it can give teachers a better idea of how to teach, if it can capture the imagination of able young people and give them insights, incentives, and goals, and particularly if the University can be presented in such a fashion that its aspirations and its work are better understood, the result will surely be an improved and a broadened student body.

Television will prove of enormous value in the education of those mature members of our society who wish to continue to learn. From its beginning, the University has considered adult

education to be one of its central tasks. It was the first university in America to build extension programs into its basic structure; where it has led, the other universities have followed. Television presents a great new frontier for adult education, and the University's proper role now is, as it has always been, that of a pioneer.

When Channel Eleven is placed in operation, countless Chicagoans will turn to it with the conscious purpose of improving themselves. They will have, from the beginning, the same sense of dedication and involvement that has characterized the "Third Programme" of the British Broadcasting Corporation. As time goes on, other people will become interested in those reaches of knowledge and art about which they know nothing and with which they have had no previous contact. The Committee believes that, over the years, there would come into existence a large body of consistent and conscientious viewers for whom television will have brought the ideal of lifelong learning much nearer to realization.

But the value of educational television will not stop here. Indeed, it may well be said that the chief objective has not yet been mentioned. It is, in brief, the power that television will give the University to strengthen its influence in the improvement of our society. Universities are vast storehouses of knowledge which needs to be translated into action. If the things which our professors know are given

articulate expression, they will become a part of the stock of ideas which are discussed and acted upon. The facts, controversies, and concerns of the various academic disciplines may be presented for their own inherent values and in such a way that they may all be brought to bear on decisions which the individual citizen must make. Standards of excellence and good taste may be set. In countless ways, both direct and subtle, the programs presented on Channel Eleven will have their effect.

Furthermore, the quality of the University is a product not only of research and discussion among its own members but also of the life of the community in which it functions. By subjecting themselves through the use of television to the examination and judgment of their communities, university faculties may grow in wisdom as well as in practical influence. No other medium offers to faculties so immediate a communication with the public, together with so little compromise of their essential independence.

Among other things, educational television should have some impact upon commercial television. The Committee accepts the fact that commercial stations, with their tremendous resources, must be assumed as a necessary, desirable, and usually predominant source of programs for mass audiences. Such stations must also accept the fact that, to the viewer, Channel Eleven is only a flick of the selector away from them. Educational television is a real competition, and

they must meet it. Many of those who are employed in commercial television are eager to improve it, but they cannot convince the advertisers and the station managers. An outside point of reference and quality is needed. It is needed equally by the external critics of commercial television. As Channel Eleven grows in excellence, it will provide at least one standard against which other stations may be judged. In the long run, an educational station may raise the level of quality of all television.

Some of the comments on preceding pages may have suggested that television could be a powerful public relations instrument for the University. The Committee believes that one of the consequences of participation in Channel Eleven would indeed be a strengthening of the relationship between the University and the Chicago community. There can be no doubt, however, of the fact that direct promotion of the University's facilities would be unworthy, undignified, and self-defeating. The hortatory intonation of commercial advertising is precisely the tone of voice which educational television should avoid. If the University is respected today, it is because it performs its basic functions well. It can gain further respect by television only if it directs its attention to the proper ends which should be achieved.

In conclusion, then, the broad objectives of educational television are identical with these which should characterize all of the activities of a

university. Most distinctively, however, television should be designed and used primarily as an instrument of adult education and of broad community improvement. As such, it will have a powerful impact on both the outside world and upon the University itself. For the quality of a university is related to, and dependent upon, the quality of the society of which it is a part.

#### SOME PRINCIPLES OF OPERATION

In its recommendations as to how the University might use television as an instrument of general education, the Committee has been guided by certain conceptions of television as a means of communication. The program ideas presented in this report rest upon a number of assumptions about both the possibilities and the limitations of television evaluated from the point of view of the purposes of the University. The Committee has not made a systematic study of the medium, but it has organized the common-sense observations of its members in order to facilitate its work.

#### COMPARISON OF TELEVISION WITH OTHER MEDIA

The extraordinary versatility of television in comparison with other means of mass communication was one of the considerations plainly acknowledged in the favorable attitude of the faculty toward the Committee's proposal that the University of Chicago should participate in the operation of Channel Eleven. This versatility is

best demonstrated by comparing television with other media that have been used by the University. It is important in making such comparisons to observe that in television we should be using not merely a novel physical instrument of reproduction, transmission, and reception, but a new type of communication network whose economic and social characteristics are of crucial importance to the telecaster.

*Television and film.*—To begin with, to make a helpful comparison between television and the educational motion-picture film, it must be recognized at once that, although television resembles the film in its production and reproduction of audio-visual images, it differs profoundly from the film in its mode of distribution and, therefore, also in the social structure and physical conditions of the audience which receives the image. The educational film is distributed mechanically to out-of-home audiences whose size is dependent on the seating facilities in the place of projection and on the relative success of more or less elaborate prior arrangements in mobilizing interest and overcoming the obstacles that impede the organization of such groups. The television audio-visual image, whether studio "live" program or film, is distributed by cable and wave to home receivers. Educational film systems in the United States, while they reach many people, do not reach the mass audience in the largest sense. The educational film appears to be most successful in serving special audiences, primarily within institu-

tions such as schools, libraries, museums, offices, and plants. The proposed television station, while it can be employed to reach group audiences (as in daytime broadcasts to school classrooms), will reach a mass audience already created by commercial broadcasting and far beyond the reach of mechanically distributed film.

It may be admitted that, from a technical viewpoint, "live" television production is sometimes handicapped because the "live" image does not go through the careful editing and cutting process of film production. In practice, however, the broadcaster may produce his program first on film, when precise editing is essential, or "live" where other values are more important. We have also heard the comment that the nontelevision projected film is superior in "texture" to the image on television. It may be that on occasion the ideal design of a program may have to be sacrificed because of technical limitations of the television image (especially where color is a necessary element), but this seems a minor restriction. Whatever disadvantages each medium might have theoretically, in practice they serve different ends; and there can be little doubt that television offers much greater possibilities for general adult education.

*Television and radio.*—In its discussions with other members of the faculty, the Committee occasionally encountered the argument that for certain purposes, such as the broadcasting of music, radio should be used in

preference to television. We also heard the opinion expressed that television is not a suitable medium for the transmission of highly conceptualized thought, that print is the necessary medium for this purpose. Our answer to these views is twofold. First, even if these contentions were true, they would be irrelevant, since in fact we do not have access to radio comparable to the anticipated access of television, nor do we have access to any printed medium of mass circulation comparable in its range and impact with television. Second, we believe it unwise to bind ourselves by any such a priori assumptions about what television can or cannot do. We recommend as a basic principle of educational television that it adopt an imaginative and experimental attitude toward the medium.

It should not be presumed that the formulas evident in commercial broadcasting practice suggest more than a start in the development of the television art. The visual qualities of the television screen are emphasized as if it were assumed that the screen is always viewed or must always be viewed. The fact is that it is possible to blank out the screen or use it for nonobjective patterns that may or may not be attended by the audience while audio programs are broadcast over TV. This change of pace from audio-visual to audio can be dramatized in the other direction by shifts from audio-visual to pure visual without audio. It can be assumed that these possibilities and other interest-

ing practices, which are only now being considered by commercial television, might be fully developed by educational television. It should be remembered that a noncommercial broadcaster, who does not have to write off each experiment as a failure if it does not please its first audience, operates with a longer time perspective. The expansion of the art is partly a matter of patiently teaching new expectations and attitudes to new audiences.

#### IMMEDIACY OF REPORTAGE

The versatility of television distribution is due to its combination of the communicative powers of the sound motion picture with the flexibility and economy of a radio distribution system. The electronic form of television distribution makes possible the direct and instantaneous transmission of an image of on-going events; it cuts out the time-consuming, cumbersome, and expensive distribution procedure required by film and the printed media. Its power to show events at the moment of their occurrence, for example, gives television, like radio, a special significance as a means of mobilizing a community for collective action. From the viewpoint of the university, this mobilization potentiality is probably of little importance; it seems likely that most educational programs would not lose their significance if they were first recorded on film and broadcast later. The commercial broadcasters have found that rebroadcast does not depreciate most of their programs.

However, television permits a very flexible schedule, ranging from direct and immediate broadcast of events whose interest is momentary to the broadcast of film material of timeless relevance.

While neither journalistic timeliness nor action-and-opinion mobilization are necessarily high on the list of criteria for university telecasting, it would be unsound to argue that one time is always just as good as another for the presentation of materials that bear implications for contemporary events. It should be a recognized responsibility of the university-as-broadcaster to provide a background of knowledge in depth for the current crises of social action. Furthermore, the definition of "event" employed by commercial TV is noticeably limited to human interest, politics, international news, fashion, and a few other journalistic rubrics. A university might prefer to enlarge or modify such definitions by regarding the announcement of noteworthy changes in scientific theory, or newly observed shifts in social structure, and a variety of other "happenings" as equally interesting "events." The freedom to handle such program materials on an immediate and topical basis would constitute a genuine advantage to the educational broadcaster.

#### FUGITIVE IMPACT ON THE AUDIENCE

Television broadcasts have the disadvantage of being fugitive, not only fugitive from the viewpoint of the audience, ordinarily leaving no perma-

nent record with the viewer except in memory, but also fugitive in that the broadcaster himself often retains no permanent recording for re-examination or rebroadcasting in the future. However, since methods of recording on film are available, the system is adequately flexible; the telecaster's real problem is to be wise enough to record certain programs that will be valuable in the future, leaving unrecorded those that have only a temporary value.

The circumstance that the audience receives a fugitive communication presents certain problems to the educational telecaster that he has already had some experience with in the use of radio and film. The viewer has no opportunity for concentrated study of television material; and such processes as re-reading, analysis, and the linking of earlier with later phases of exposition have to be provided for in the structure of the program itself. In view of the fact that the University does not anticipate much emphasis on formal procedures of education, these limitations may be of little importance. Where they do prove to be problematic, supplementary aids, such as printed materials, can be used to supply elements of repetition, recall, and continuity to its viewers. In general, the success of an educational broadcasting venture will be measured less by the impact of individual programs than by the cumulative effects of a service through which runs consistently an emphasis on fundamental values.

#### LOCAL AMBIT OF EDUCATIONAL TELEVISION

The television system, like radio and the newspaper, begins as a local enterprise and may be maintained in whole or in part as a service originating primarily within the community and directed toward the community audience. It is quite different in the field of the action picture film. The prevailing conditions of both entertainment and educational film production and distribution commit them to a national audience. The local dimension of television is of very great significance to the University. Much of the Committee's thought about the role of the University in Channel Eleven contemplates a richness of reciprocal relationships between the University and the city of Chicago. For example, we can imagine the development of a Chicago-centered documentary film service originating within, and distributed to, the community—a service in which the people, events, and problems of the community are given pictorial representation. Conversely, the University itself and its activities will become available to the community in a new way. This does not exclude the telecasting of films and line programs from nonlocal sources. The system is flexible here, too. It can serve as a distribution system for standard films that are not limited in their interest. We expect also to participate in network arrangements with other educational stations, thus sharing programs of more than

local interest (and, incidentally, sharing the production costs).

#### SIMULTANEITY OF RECEPTION

It is an important characteristic of television, derived from its radio characteristics, that the broadcast is received simultaneously by the members of the audience. Like immediacy, this is an attribute that would be of greatest practical significance in mobilizing common discussion of events of the day, in exciting political controversy, or in organizing a population to deal with emergencies. The University's programs would seldom have such a purpose. Nevertheless, the simultaneous reception of its programs by many people could be expected to give rise to discussion and the exchange of opinion in ways not inherent in other forms of communication. Thus, where two or more members of a family view the received program, they are invited to share information and attitudes during an experience which is novel and provocative to each and are provided with the opportunity to discuss it afterwards while the impression is fresh and stimulating. When people have seen the program simultaneously but separately, it can readily become a topic of conversation in their subsequent contacts. The educational implications of such discussion patterns are rather different from, and in some ways more promising than, the discussion patterns characteristically generated by motion pictures and books. They resemble most, of course, the

patterns invoked by the daily newspaper or the weekly magazine.

#### PLANNED "GROUP" RECEPTION

A system that combines the properties of localism, immediacy, and simultaneity is also a medium through which communication may be effectively addressed to, and by prearrangement received by, the members of organized groups in the community. One of our suggested operating principles is that the University provide such programs for the members of local organizations, especially professional societies, such as those of law, dentistry, medicine, etc., whose members would wish to receive periodic reports on research in progress in their fields. It has also been suggested that there are many ways in which a university's programs may be related to the interests and work of scientific amateurs, hobby groups, and craftsmen. It should not be assumed that to address and reach such selected audiences will always amount to a concurrent exclusion of other audiences. It may well be that programs for such "primary" audiences in the selective sense will generate "secondary" audiences of overhearers; and that what we can learn about these overlappings of the special interest and the general interest will prove to be of great theoretical and tactical instruction for us.

A local broadcasting enterprise will provide many opportunities for direct collaboration between the university-as-broadcaster and the members of its audience, since both are immediately

available to each other in a way in which for example, the distant movie industry is not available to its clientele. Perhaps the most dramatic suggestions we have received in this connection have to do with ways in which members of the audience might collaborate with university scientists in the conduct of massive experiments where hundreds or thousands of independent subjects, experimenters, or observers are required.

#### CONTINUITY

A local television system devoted entirely to educational purposes provides for continuity and progression in successive programs. The University is not to be restricted to occasional episodes of communication but can organize series of programs on the same theme. When it seemed desirable, such a series could be progressive, in the sense that each program in the series would represent an advance upon the knowledge communicated in the preceding one. When there is continuity of broadcast service, there can be continuity of audience—the building-up over the course of time of a “following,” an audience progressively involved in, and committed to, specific programs or predisposed to view many of the programs contributed by the University.

We should observe that the progressive development of an audience can occur in several ways. It may be that, if the audience for programs of a given type increased steadily in number, it would reach a point where the popu-

larization process would begin to accelerate simply because of the number of people involved in it (on the principle that, when enough people are involved in an activity, the rest do not want to be “left out”). On the other hand, it may be that a certain audience, given successively more complex views of the same subject, might become progressively smaller as the capacities of some of its members were exceeded, but with an increase in the average individual grasp of the subject among the remainder. Again, it may be that shifts in the structure of an audience or in the expression of its response to a program make possible an upward revision of intellectual difficulty and quality without significant losses in number.

The relation between programing and these “developments” in the audience is not that progressive and developmental programing guarantees them but that it is one of the devices by which they can be hastened, measured, and assessed. It is quite possible for an audience to show development in ways not contemplated by the producers; and, likewise, it is possible for developmental programs to fail to hold an audience through cumulative experiences. Nevertheless, wherever true cumulations are achieved, they can have profound effects, not only in the amassing of factual knowledge, but in the gaining of an understanding of the University and its work, of the meaning of science and scholarship, and in the sharing of enlightened attitudes and values.

## THE "NATURALISM" OF TV REPORTAGE

How a medium like television may be used is as much a question of what the audience will accept as of the technical requirements or possibilities of the instrument. It is the Committee's impression that audiences have learned to expect that programs produced in and transmitted from "natural" locations (e.g., from a university laboratory or clinic) will be conducted in a casual manner and will lack the finish of theatrical performances or of carefully edited documentary film. Where the role of the television camera is to witness "real" events, the expectations of the audience are adjusted to the conditions of life rather than art. We believe that it will be possible to produce many, if not most, of our programs in a casual, natural, and friendly style which does not seek to create illusions.

Television appears to have redefined "glamor" by depreciating some of the histrionic skills associated with the stage, the radio, and the movies and by emphasizing all the elements of performance that favor a semipersonalized relation between the performer and the audience. Some of this change is the result of changes in production methods (rapid rehearsal of live shows with no possibility of retake), and some of it is the result of changes in the reception situation (the casual, informal, unexcited attitude of the home viewer).

Commercial television producers have experimented with a style that clearly differs from theater and movie

style, especially in its cultivation of informality and "amateurism." These tendencies are most obvious where television capitalizes on its candid-camera aspects and makes program material of the unpredictable, low-cost, and all-too-human conduct of the studio audience, the street scene, and so on. In more subtle form they appear as the rather artful tendency to make the "casual" itself a new and higher standard of art. In both types of informality and "amateurism," the performer seems to be responding to his status as a guest of the home by making the audience member a guest of the studio.

These precedents are important for us because they have established a pattern of sociability between performer and audience that undercuts the need for highly contrived dramatization in educational television—and, indeed, puts a premium on some of the very informalities by which modern higher education characteristically goes about its work.

## CRITERIA OF SUCCESS

The programs offered by the University will be in competition with those of commercial broadcasting, not in the sense of offering similar content but of offering alternatives. What are the possibilities that educational programs can "succeed" in the face of such competition? The present report is evidence that the Committee believes that the conditions for success are favorable. In discussing the grounds for this belief, it is necessary

to treat two separate but related aspects of the question: the criteria of "success" and the favorable conditions of the "market."

When we speak of the competition that educational television can offer commercial television, we need to define our terms. All mass communications are alike in the sense that they compete for attention. Once this is agreed on, certain differences between educational and commercial television emerge more clearly. First, the telecast does not necessarily compete for the largest possible number of viewers, for mass attention. Second, it does not necessarily appeal to the same kind of attention from the viewers, regardless of their number. Third, it does not necessarily obtain attention with, or for, the same kind of commodity that is offered by the commercial television program. The latter generally calls for attention to two commodities, the entertainment and other private values offered by the program, and the commodity referred to in the "commercial." In general, educational telecasts in which an educational value might be "sold" by some process intellectually and artistically distinct from the program itself would probably be ineffective.

We should expect to build up our audiences gradually, over the years, through many conditions and channels of recruitment—our collaboration with professional societies and groups, with local institutions, with segments of the mass audience whose needs are not now being adequately met. We

should expect a fruitful interplay between our own increasing proficiency in the production of programs and the rising educational level of the population. In particular, we may look forward to the recruitment of audiences of young people to Channel Eleven through the participation of the public school system, and their continued education, by our own programs as they mature.

As of the present moment, it seems to us that the conditions are very favorable. Commercial broadcasting offers a number of fine programs, but these are but a small proportion of the total broadcast, and many of them come at inconvenient times. In the prime hours of the evening there are many dreary periods when all but the most fanatical seekers after "entertainment" might turn with relief to Channel Eleven. Although we might expect our strongest following to consist at first of people of better-than-average education or those already strongly oriented toward the University, in the long run we might reasonably expect to draw from the relatively uneducated masses. Television, like the film, has the power to provide different levels of meaning for different segments of the audience; even those who cannot absorb fully the conceptual content may be intrigued and stimulated by the visible objects and action or drawn into an effort to understand by their simple human interest in the people who appear in the program. We also think it likely that, though viewers tend to select certain

of the popular programs because of an established preference, much of their viewing may be governed by sheer habit of spending a quota of time before the television set, when they shop among the programs available, with relatively undefined expectations and a readiness to become involved in any program that strikes their interest. We may count on the fact that many will respond, because of their involvement in the life of the community, to programs in which the events and conditions of the city life are reflected, and to others because of their interest in discovering what lies behind the façade of those institutions, such as the University, from which the course of their own lives has excluded them. Some may be drawn in the spirit of snobbery, and others, of condescension. That the initial attitude of many may be hostile simply increases the challenge to us to create a natural and friendly atmosphere of invitation.

It is not the proper function of this Committee to try to establish specific criteria for the success of specific programs or of the University's participation, in general, in educational television. This is one of the major problems to be worked out by the institutions participating in Channel Eleven and similar enterprises elsewhere. It is a problem involving difficult theoretical and technical questions. We have, however, made certain assumptions that should be reported.

We have assumed that the criteria for success in educational broadcasting will not be the simple quantitative

criteria of commercial broadcasting. This is not to say that the size of an audience is of no consequence, for obviously it would be unreasonable to continue broadcasting a program that had but half a dozen viewers. On the other hand, we should not make the assumption that all the families who own television sets within range of our station are the potential audience for a given program. The potential audience for a program is defined by such factors as the interests to which it is addressed and the level of education presupposed in its content. Such an audience may be a small fraction of the absolute potential audience. Even within such restricted limits, it might not be wise to use a simple quantitative standard. One would have to ask: Who are the audience and what are their characteristics? What does the program mean to them? Are its purposes being realized? Is the audience growing or declining in size, changing in composition in the desired direction, developing in understanding, or failing to keep pace with the program?

It is assumed that educational broadcasting, like education itself and like the University's own research and scholarship, is an activity with long-range time perspective. If we enter educational broadcasting, our intent should be to make it a permanent feature of the University's work.

The Committee suspects that the "how" of educational television is something that is being learned and will have to be learned by experiment. We do not believe that we can predict

the form of those experiments, or their success, or even the criteria that would be useful in describing their success or failure. The fact is that for almost every theory of the way in which television establishes (or fails to establish) a relation between producers, productions, and viewers, there is another theory that questions or seriously qualifies it. We must do the best we can to put them to the test of practical experience.

#### SOME POSSIBLE PROGRAMS

The Committee realizes very well that it encounters certain dangers when it suggests ideas for specific programs. Only practical experience can determine whether a given idea will work. Time, ingenuity, professional competence, and a certain amount of trial and error are all required to perfect a program. But the possibilities and the power of television can be made completely real only if one considers, in fairly concrete terms, some of the programs which can be presented. The Committee therefore presents in random order, and without categorization, certain seeds of program ideas which some day under favorable conditions may germinate.

"Invitation to the University": We now bring to the University thousands of people each year to see one or another of our buildings or physical resources. By television we could bring hundreds of thousands, and we could give each a more direct, immediate, and intimate view. In a series of sessions we could show and explain the cyclotron, the Oriental Institute, the geological museum, the collection of maps, the Rare Book Room,

and our other showpieces. We could also take the camera into laboratories, clinics, and other places to which we cannot now admit visitors in person. The program would attempt not merely to show things off but also to have the audience understand how these things contribute to culture and to our society. Above all else, the program should not be designed for public relations but rather to build understanding of what a university really is, what it does, and what kinds of freedom it should have.

"How the University Sees the City": The people themselves see the city as an enormous entity, in some part of which each of them has a place and with which each is familiar. They do not look at the city objectively as the social scientist does. The program might use an infinitely varied theme, with one session or more devoted to such topics as these: the clustering and gradual diffusion of nationality and ethnic groups; the patterns of migration of the people; how slums are created; the variable pattern of overcrowding; the various sociological phenomena of crime, delinquency, homeless men, and poverty; the solutions offered by recreation, education, and specialized courts; the governmental difficulties presented by enormous size; the effect of large size on the pattern and efficiency of government; and the economic difficulties and opportunities presented to the individual who lives in the city. Each session should be built around a person who is an expert on a topic of city life, and each expert should use charts, diagrams, still pictures, and documentary films. Actual films could be made and shown as they illustrate the topic dealt with.

"The People Shall Judge": It is suggested here that a member of the College social-sciences staff lead a series of discussions of basic American documents. His students should include both students in the College and their parents. The values which might be derived are these: a better understanding of the works discussed; a greater appreciation of content-centered discussion as a method of

teaching; a better understanding of what constitutes good teaching; and, most important of all, the idea that parents and young people can maintain common bonds through reading and talking together.

"The Major Occupations": This program would be so organized that each week there would be a consideration of one of the occupations in which men and women earn their living. A common core of information—length and kind of preparation, financial and other rewards, main pathways for advancement, and so on—would be included, but each program might take a distinctive form in terms of the occupation considered. There would be a moderator to give continuity; and he would use charts, motion pictures, interviews, and panel discussions as they were appropriate. The program would be designed basically for high-school students and their parents, but it might also have a wide general appeal.

"The Scenes of European History": The European child is brought up in the midst of history and feels it all around him. Americans have many allusions to place names which remain completely unreal to them. Each session of this program would be built around some famous place as it is today. At the start, a historian would give a brief talk, setting forth the historical significance of the scene to be shown and perhaps using pictures or diagrams to illustrate his talk. The scene would then be shown in film as it exists today. Some illustrations might be Hastings, Waterloo, the forest of Compiègne, Versailles, Kronberg Castle, and the Tower of London. If films suitable for the purpose do not exist, they could be commissioned from the television authorities of the foreign countries concerned, since the educational stations of this country will doubtless have close affiliations with them.

"Ballads and Their Backgrounds": The ballad is a piece of folk art, its origins obscure but its appeal universal. Each session might be built around one or two ballads which would be sung, perhaps with variant

versions. Some history of the ballad would be given, with an indication of where it originated and how it has spread. The audience might be invited to send in different versions, with some indication of where they were heard. The cosmopolitan population of Chicago might thereby be encouraged to aid in this kind of research.

"The Weather": This program would use current atmospheric conditions not merely for purposes of discussion and prediction but as an illustration of the basic science of meteorology. The instruments used, the way in which data are collected, the classification of various kinds of weather phenomena (clouds, for example), and the presentation of the broad air-mass theory might greatly aid in building an understanding of weather as a scientific phenomenon. If anyone wished, the program might be used as a vehicle of contact with amateur meteorologists who would collaborate in collecting data in much the same way as the Harvard Observatory now uses amateur astronomers.

"The University Interprets the News": This would be a panel program, with one or two constant members and several who would be used on occasion. The main topics of news in the week concerned would be selected, the moderator being careful to include items of long-range as well as immediate significance. Each topic would first be presented factually and then discussed by the panel, the effort being made to get at what lies behind the facts and to interpret what their consequences might be.

"The Government of the City": Chicago is governed by an enormously complex, unco-ordinated, and heterogeneous group of governments. This program would attempt to make this fact graphically clear to the people. Each session would present some department or aspect of government, with some thoroughly qualified expert serving as commentator. If possible, we might televise a meeting of the city council or the school board or edit film made at such sessions. We would visit each of the departments of the

city, trying to find out what is done by each. We could go out into the ward organization and present, either with comment or with significant silence, some of the things we see. It would also be worth while to present some of the most outstanding proposals for reform, such as home rule and charter revision.

"Distinguished Visitors": This program would put on television, for everyone to see, some of the large number of outstanding persons who come to the University each year. It should not be a periodic program, lest we be tempted thereby to lower our standards of who is distinguished.

"The Human Adventure": For several years the University maintained a radio program by this name, broadcasting it over a nation-wide network. It is essentially the story of discovery and of research, each session being built about some line of inquiry or, more usually, the work of an individual. The radio scripts remain, and they could be readily converted into scripts for television.

"Work in Progress": This program would deal not with completed research but with that which is now going on. Men and women on our campus who are undertaking significant investigations that can be explained to the public would be asked to tell what it is that they are trying to do, demonstrating the equipment they use and the way in which they think about the problems they are trying to solve. The program might have a "roundup" every now and then to ask the investigators to tell how their work is progressing. This program has obvious values in explaining the several disciplines and methods of research, in indicating the nature of scientific inquiry, in illustrating the importance of research in our society, and, possibly, in securing financial support.

"Contemporary Cultures": Most people have little understanding of the habits and ways of life of other countries and other people. This series would use film, drawing from that which is generally available, that which has been taken by anthropologists to record folk customs and rituals, and that

which may be available from private sources. The purpose would simply be to give some understanding of how other people live. A basic structure of topics might be developed, so that every program was sure to touch on each. In some cases, people from the cultures concerned—for example, students at International House—might be drawn in for commentary or interview.

"Our Social Agencies": This program would be devoted to the presentation of the goals and programs of the various social and welfare organizations of the city: the hospitals, settlement houses, child-care programs, summer camps, and other agencies. Each session of the program should be devoted to one such agency, which may be treated as unique or as typifying the general class of institutions to which it belongs. The program should be broadcast from the agency itself, or, if that proves not to be feasible, a film should be made of the setting. The program might include an interview with the administrative head of the agency and should include, if at all possible, some pictorial representation of the basic services which are performed.

"The Expert Answers": This program would be built around the three resources of an instructional film, an expert in the subject matter concerned, and a small panel of people. A moderator would briefly introduce both the subject and the expert. There would then be shown an instructional film, the expert would make brief comments about it, and the panel would then direct questions to the expert. The range of subjects which are now available on film is enormous, and the topics dealt with could be drawn from all parts of the University.

"Resources for Learning": The idea of this program would be to show the adults the places to which they can go to study and learn. It would include visits to university extension centers, libraries, museums, settlement houses, park-district field houses, evening schools, and industrial and union programs. Although the chief purpose is to build

a wider knowledge of available resources, a secondary purpose would be to reinforce the general idea that adults should keep on learning. It would be hoped that this idea would get across to young people so that they do not leave formal schooling with the belief that they are able now to put learning behind them.

"How a Neighborhood Can Take Action": In and around Chicago there are a number of community movements in which the citizens of a particular area are involved. The best illustration is the South East Chicago Commission, but there are many other less extensive efforts, started and fostered by citizens' associations, settlement houses, and schools. Each session of this program should be devoted to some such effort, interviewing the people concerned, finding out what they have learned, making some estimate of accomplishment and what remains to be done, and drawing any general lessons for other communities. Emphasis should be placed on direct action (that is, what the people can do for themselves), rather than on the building-up of pressure groups for action by legislative groups or administrative officials.

"The News in Sciences, the Arts, Business, Education": This program would be broadcast weekly, but each subject would be dealt with once a month. The emphasis would be on giving coverage generally to topics which are not given adequate display in newspapers and news broadcasts. The show would have a continuing moderator for each topic, and he would have the chief task of presenting content. He would heighten interest where he could by bringing in other persons to serve on a panel or to be interviewed, and he would introduce pictures, charts, and other materials as they are appropriate.

"How Children Learn To Read": This program would be designed for parents, for adults who are interested in their own reading abilities, and for teachers who want a refresher course dealing with newer techniques. By actual demonstration with children, such

topics as the following would be dealt with: the determination of reading readiness, learning to recognize words, the introduction of phonics, developing concepts for reading unfamiliar material, the use of the dictionary and other sources, and reading for a specific purpose.

"Learning To Read Better": This program would be designed directly for adults and would approach the idea of reading from a number of angles. Some of the topics would be the diagnosis of poor reading, the improvement of reading rate, the building of vocabulary, and logical or analytical methods for getting meaning from the printed page. It is possible that a direct remedial course might be given on television, but one would need to approach such a course with a great caution in order not to promise too much and in order to permit of proper treatment of individual differentiation.

"What Can I Do?": Each session would deal with the ways in which the citizen can take independent action about pervasive social problems, such as: "How do I behave when a friend makes remarks which indicate race prejudice?" "What do I do when I hear a rumor that the house next door has been sold to Negroes?" "What do I do when my son is beaten up by a gang on the way home from school?" This program would need a continuing moderator. For each problem a panel, composed of both professors and lay citizens, would be chosen. The panel would be encouraged on occasion to place itself in the situation and act out some of the answers.

"How Chicago Is Fed": This program would illustrate the operation of basic principles of economics through taking one large area of human activity and examining it thoroughly. Through focusing on this one central topic, there could be given a realistic picture of the intricate systems of production, transportation, and financing of food. The medium used would probably be commentary aided by extensive use of films or live broadcasts. While major attention would

be centered on the more immediate and specific handling of foods, the series should certainly include a consideration of the work of the Board of Trade and the Stock Exchange.

**"Toward a More Perfect Democracy":** Various kinds of social reform are now being proposed by responsible groups in our society. They have to do with city planning, housing, government reform, improved health and sanitation, planned parenthood, crime prevention, and the like. In each session, some faculty member who has studied the proposed reform and supports it should present its basic ideas, using straight exposition, interviewing, discussion, visual aids, and conducted tours as these best suit his purpose.

**"Ways of Life within the City":** Various national and ethnic groups in Chicago live in distinctive community patterns, to some extent submerged within the city and to some extent distinct from it. Usually each group lives in its own neighborhood and imposes its pattern upon the area. This program would be devoted to a series of explorations, each session being given over to one group. The medium used might be direct broadcasting from the neighborhood involved, but films combined with commentary might provide a more flexible and interesting pattern.

**"Sunday Service":** This program would be a telecast of the weekly religious service from Rockefeller Chapel, perhaps varied on occasion with broadcasts from one of our other chapels in the University and in its neighborhood. This program would have its own direct religious significance, but also it would serve to remind the city constantly of one of the important aspects of the life of the University.

**"Aging Successfully":** This program would be the vehicle for communicating the research findings of the various studies now being done on the Quadrangles concerning the problems of the aged. It could take many forms. Initially it might present, in a series of sessions, certain basic concepts of how life may be made more satisfying for the aged. It

might indicate the work being done by various social, recreational, and educational agencies to offer assistance to such people. It might even offer certain case studies of successful adjustment, if such studies could be done with dignity and taste. Finally, it might offer suggestions for fruitful personal activity on the part of the aged. If desired, the program might also be the vehicle for securing information to be used in research efforts.

**"Visits to Places of Religious Interest":** Chicago has churches of many denominations. This program would, at each session, visit a particular church (either directly or by film), show anything which is distinctive about its religious symbols and orientations, and provide an opportunity for the minister of the church to explain the set of beliefs and doctrines which he professes. The program should have a continuing moderator who is familiar with comparative religion; and, in interviewing the minister, he should be careful to bring out the particular applications of certain general themes which would run throughout the series.

**"An Introduction to Chamber Music":** The small size of the television screen makes it particularly suitable for activities in which only a few people are concerned. At the same time, some kind of diversity is desirable. These considerations would seem to indicate that chamber music would be initially the most desirable form of instrumental music to present. The program would be composed of both explanation and performance. Initially the presentation should be extremely simple, emphasis being laid on such topics as the basic musical themes, the structure of the composition, and the ways in which the instruments interact. To avoid atomization, each program should present one piece which is played through from beginning to end without interruption.

**"Tomorrow's Home":** This program would be designed for those who are planning to build a home or who might wish to build one some day. It would also be of inter-

est to these who are generally interested in the problems of housing and architecture. It should take up such questions as the location of the house on the lot, selecting an architect, determining the optimum size of the house, planning the interior, and introducing provisions for flexibility. The basic medium used would be the lecture with profuse illustrations, including an occasional use of film.

"The World of Maps": This program would present a straightforward explanation of maps and map-making. The basic problems, and the solutions advanced, would be explained. The method used would be an informal lecture, with very heavy use of the University's map collection.

"Approaches to Peace": Many different disciplines and professions are concerned with the need for peace. This program would present a series of illustrated talks, showing how each profession thinks it is attacking the problems. Among those involved would be the diplomat, the educator, the scientist, the public health official, the political scientist, the economist, the theologian, and the humanist. The University should draw both from its own faculty and from outside to locate the persons who are to speak; and, if possible, men of great prestige and experience should be used. Perhaps this program might be put on film for wide circulation to other stations.

"Preparation for the Symphony": Every Sunday afternoon during the winter the Columbia Broadcasting System presents the New York Philharmonic Symphony. This program would, in effect, get people ready to hear the program. Based on the list of works to be performed, the lecture would present suitable background material, using the piano to sketch themes and the blackboard to indicate the structure of the compositions. If desirable, some information about the composer could be presented.

"The Elements of Beauty": This program would focus directly on objects of beauty, each session being given over completely to one object or a small group of them. The lec-

turer (or perhaps a panel) would try to express in words the essence of the beauty of the objects, perhaps presenting for contrast other articles in which this beauty is not displayed. The whole emphasis would be on concentration on the work of art itself and the insights which may be derived from the examination of it.

"Theatrical Dancing": The program would combine lecture, illustration, and performance. The kinds of dancing presented could range from highly formalized classical ballet to very simple folk dances, and the goal should be both analysis and appreciation. Any actual performances should be of a highly professional sort; there are many films now available which could be used for this purpose.

"Architecture in Chicago": Chicago has been the place from which much modern architecture has sprung, and the city also contains examples of many forms and types. This program would explore the interesting ideas which were first developed here, with the television camera visiting, either directly or on film, some of the famous buildings and examining their distinctive features. The goal should be not to glorify Chicago but to create understanding of the nature of architecture and of the goals which outstanding architects have sought and are seeking.

"How a Television Station Operates": This program would simply turn the camera on the station itself and indicate both the technical processes which are used and the ways in which ideas get translated into action. It would be designed to satisfy the curiosity of the viewers and, perhaps, to make them understand and support the station.

"Honorary Degree": On those rare occasions on which the University awards an honorary degree, it might well devote a program to the work and the unique distinction of the recipient. The purpose of this program would be to provide a kind of case study of the values which lead to outstanding eminence in the academic world.

"What's in Your Attic": This program, which would be built around the collection of historical documents and objects, would be intended to stimulate people to collect materials of importance for the history of localities, areas, and periods of development of the Chicago area and the Middle West.

"On Stage": This program would deal with the lore of the theater. Visits would be made directly or by film to various kinds of theaters including the Elizabethan. Attention would be given to the procedures and paraphernalia of theatrical production, with biographies of famous playwrights and actors, permitting the use of visual materials, including handbills.

"The Dialogues of Plato": Two members of the faculty have already begun to develop a possible program on Plato that involves the dramatization of certain dialogues or portions of dialogues.

"The Geography of the Chicago Area": As its name indicates, this program would explore and describe the basic geographic attributes and their interesting variations which are to be found in the city and its vicinity.

"The Art Studio": A representation of the development of works of art by the various processes, including painting, ceramics, and sculpture. Every step of the process of the creation of a real work of art would be illustrated.

"The Craft Studio": This program would be very like the foregoing except that it would deal more particularly with weaving, woodworking, pottery, and the other handicrafts.

"The Amateur Photographer": Analysis and criticism of photographs, either "stills" or motion pictures, submitted by members of the television audience. Special information for this program might be derived from the Humanities Department as well as from the Physics and Chemistry departments.

"Pure and Applied Science, or Science and Technology": This program would attempt to show the relations between the work of the

pure scientist interested only in understanding nature and the work of the applied scientist and technologist. This would need to be somewhat historical in nature and could start from views of industrial processes in the Chicago area, tracing back to the original discoveries on which they are based. One such specific example might be "Inside a Steel Mill."

Start with shots showing operation of a modern steel mill producing some material for a special purpose. Show the structure of this steel as determined both by microscopic methods and by X-ray diffraction; and give brief résumés of the development of these means of study, the relation of the structures observed, and the treatment to which the metal is being subjected, as well as the resulting properties which can be visualized either by testing or by actual service demonstration. The Chicago area is very rich in industrial processes of scientific background, and interesting programs could be made by oscillating between large-scale, spectacular industrial operations and work in university and other laboratories showing the science back of it. Through these programs great care should be taken to see that the impression is not left that university science has only a utilitarian value, and every effort must be made to show the aesthetic and primary intellectual appeal of science.

"The Elements": Ninety-eight chemical elements—different species of matter—are known. Even in the Bible about six of these are mentioned, and in 1870 fifty-six were known. By 1925 about eighty-five had been identified. A story of the history of the discovery of the elements can be made not only instructive, but fascinating. Charts, photographs, and movies could be used as supplementary material. A number of interesting stories can be associated with the discovery of the elements. For example, it can be shown that the misinterpretation of the results of a few chemical experiments delayed discovery of several elements for a period of 125 years. This program would be primarily a lecture

supplemented with numerous types of materials for purposes of illustration.

"Paleontology": A possible theme is the origin and development of life. This should be carried out in co-operation with various areas of the University and adjacent museums. It could form the basis of an exceedingly interesting series of programs. A second theme could deal with the origin, accumulation, exploration, and production of petroleum. This would be a co-operative venture in which paleontology would play only one of the principal roles.

"Water Resources of the United States": A dramatic series of programs is possible under this heading. Many films have been made. On-the-spot programs on water-supply problems in Chicago are possible.

"Carbon-14": The discovery of Carbon 14 in all living matter, which when removed from the life-cycle undergoes radioactive decay with a half life of about 5,000 years, makes it possible to determine the age of materials containing carbon, particularly in the age range of 1,000-20,000 years. This discovery is of interest to archeologists and geologists due to the fact that it is possible to determine, with considerable accuracy, the age of specimens containing carbon. A series of programs could be developed showing the technical equipment and procedure for making the measurements, the materials used for the measurements, and the importance and application of the results.

"Geiger Counter Demonstrations": Geiger counters and other types of counting instruments could be illustrated by suitable charts in regard to design, and the counters could be heard and flashing lights could be seen as they respond to the various radioactivities exhibited by a number of different materials. The Geiger counters could also be demonstrated for the detection of lost sources of radioactive substances, for example, radium; for measuring the radioactivity of the atmosphere; and for surveying laboratories and other places where a radioactive hazard might be present.

"High-Energy Accelerator Machines": A program could be developed to demonstrate the principles of operation of high-energy machines, such as the cyclotron, the betatron, the Van de Graaff generator, and the cosmotron. Furthermore, demonstrations could be made of the use of these machines for studying the properties of matter.

"The Chain-reaction Pile": Sufficient information is now available to make it possible to describe in complete detail the small experimental chain-reacting piles, of which several are in use in the country. A series of programs would have as its beginning the first chain-reacting pile at Stagg Field at the University and would terminate in one of the more recent reactors and in predictions for the design of future power reactors. The different uses that could be made of these reactors in physics, chemistry, and particularly in biology and medicine could be demonstrated.

"Composition of the Solar System": An interesting program could be devised, dealing with the composition of matter and the distribution of different types of matter in meteorites, with the objective of presenting the different ideas related to the composition and origin of the solar system. This topic is a general one and could be broken down into many categories, such as the composition of the moon, the surface of the moon, and similar topics.

"The Structure of Matter": A series of programs could be designed on the level of interest to the layman, describing what we believe to be the structure of different species of matter, what are the elementary particles composing matter, how these particles are arranged and associated with each other, and what changes occur when chemical reactions take place. Supplementary materials in the form of charts, movies, and photographs would be needed.

"Everyday Chemistry": Everyone uses every day a large number of different materials which are products of chemistry. One need mention only a few, such as rubber,

nylon, plastics, soap, paint, pharmaceuticals, and gasoline. What are these substances and how are they produced? In other words, what is the story behind each of them? Also the question of hazards in the handling of many chemicals we encounter every day could be emphasized. In this regard, safety-education programs could be developed.

"Human Heredity": We are all curious about how we came to be the way we are—our stature; eye color; hair color, whether it is straight or curly, or why some become bald while others do not. Problems connected with marriage and having children arise because of hereditary factors: hemophilia, Rh factor, feeble-mindedness. All of these and others could be discussed in a series of programs which would have great personal appeal over a long period. Pictures of people and of affected structures and diagrams of family lineage could be used to good effect. In the context of these problems a great deal of fundamental genetics and biology could be taught.

"How the Body Functions": Almost everyone is anxious for more knowledge about how his own body functions. This normal curiosity is heightened whenever there is some malfunction. Satisfaction of this curiosity not only permits more rational and assured planning of personal habits, but in many cases unnecessary concern can be prevented or alleviated. For years the demonstrations in the College courses in physiology have been popular and instructive. Without recourse to animal experimentation involving vivisection, it is possible to demonstrate strikingly the function and role in the body's economy of all of the body's organs.

"Through the Microscope": One of the most successful public demonstrations at world's fairs, science museums, and scientific meetings is the microvivarium. Pond animalcules, bacteria, molds, and other microorganisms are only a part of the microscopic work which can be shown in motion on the television screen. So great is the variety of

available cell types and so many are the experiments which can be done with them that this program could run for an almost unlimited time. Furthermore, it should require little rehearsal. Once a satisfactory microscope is set up in conjunction with a television camera, one need only provide live material and a commentator who can help the audience understand and enjoy what is seen. There should be a great element of spontaneity in this program. Also it should be more than a scientific peep show in that discussion of the activities of the cells and their parts should teach a great deal of fundamental physiology.

"Preparation for Parenthood": Children are our most precious resource, yet vast numbers of present and potential parents know virtually nothing in any real sense of the biological and psychological aspects of their prenatal and postnatal development. Our Department of Obstetrics and Gynecology has had extensive experience in counseling prospective mothers and fathers during the period before the birth of their children. At the University and at the Museum of Science and Industry are a wealth of models and materials for demonstrating the embryological development of the child. Our Department of Pediatrics in conjunction with psychiatrists and sociologists could continue the counseling with regard to postnatal development.

"Plants and Their Growth": The topics dealt with on this program could range from such mundane ones as how to grow a lawn or plants in a window box to discussions of the geological history of the area and its influence on the natural flora of the region. Plants lend themselves particularly well to time-lapse photography, so that movies showing plant growth; flowers blooming, and other plant functions can readily be prepared. Telecasts of gardens and forest, besides their aesthetic value, would acquaint the public with places they might wish to visit on outings. Acquaintance with new plant forms, particularly with forms well suited to grow in

this area, should not only be satisfying to the viewer but also might encourage beautifying the city.

"Mathematical Biology": In addition to dealing qualitatively with phenomena in the biological and social sciences, it is possible to describe many systems in more or less precise mathematical terms and to make predictions about them. Such matters as spreading of rumors, the effect of size of group on unanimity of opinion, and related matters hold great public interest.

#### CONCLUSION

Throughout its discussions the Committee has been sensitive to the dangers of excessive fascination with the novelty of television. Its concern

has been with what the University might have to say, not with technical devices. What the University has to say appears, upon examination, to be vital to the continuing health of our society. As for the technical machinery itself, we recommend the judgment of Henry David Thoreau:

Our inventions are wont to be pretty toys, which distract our attention from serious things. They are but improved means to an unimproved end, an end which it was already but too easy to arrive at; as railroads lead to Boston or New York. We are in great haste to construct a magnetic telegraph from Maine to Texas; but Maine and Texas, it may be, have nothing important to communicate.—*Walden*.

## ARE PUPILS LEARNING THE BASIC SKILLS OF ENGLISH?

JONATHON C. McLENDON  
*Duke University*



ENGLISH RANKS as the most important and essential subject in the curriculum of our public schools. The fact that practically all public school systems require pupils to study English for the entire twelve years of their school life evidences real concern on the part of both citizens and teachers about the teaching of English. It is no wonder, then, that myriad speeches, articles, and offhand comments overwhelm the English teacher with ideas regarding his conduct of his job.

### CRITICISMS OF TEACHING OF ENGLISH

Many of the statements by both laymen and educators are derogatory, negative, or denunciatory. Note these five quotations:

It is quite common to meet teachers and advanced pupils in our schools who are unable to give the number of letters in the English alphabet, to classify them as vowels and consonants, and much less to vocally illustrate the elementary sounds they represent when standing alone or in combination.<sup>1</sup>

<sup>1</sup> Cited in Archibald W. Anderson, "Critics, Criticism, and Crisis," *Progressive Education*, XXIX (October, 1951), 16.

[A report to the North Carolina General Assembly indicated that two-thirds of the teachers of the state] cannot teach English grammar and one-third can scarcely make out a readable return.<sup>2</sup>

[Tests] show beyond all doubt that a large proportion of the scholars in our first classes, boys and girls of fourteen and fifteen years of age, when called upon to write simple sentences, to express their thoughts on common subjects, without the aid of a dictionary or a master, cannot write, without such errors in grammar, in spelling, and in punctuation, as we should blush to see in a letter from a son or daughter of their age. And most of these children are about finishing their school career as they are going out into life; . . . the larger part never to receive any supplementary education; and how, we ask are they to write a letter that they would not be ashamed to exhibit?<sup>3</sup>

At Harvard, as the committee demonstrates, the unhappy instructors are confronted with immature thoughts, set down in a crabbed and slovenly hand, miserably

<sup>2</sup> Margaret P. Altany, "An Important Milestone for Duke," *Durham Morning Herald*, June 22, 1952, Sec. IV, p. 5.

<sup>3</sup> "Reports of the Annual Visiting Committee of the Public Schools of the City of Boston," cited in O. W. Caldwell and S. A. Courtis, *Then and Now in Education: 1845-1923*, p. 180. Yonkers-on-Hudson, New York: World Book Co., 1923.

expressed, and wretchedly spelled, and yet the average age of admission is nineteen.<sup>4</sup>

It is really a rare thing to find young people at from fifteen to nineteen years of age who can write or spell words . . . or prepare a composition correctly.<sup>5</sup>

While those statements closely resemble much you hear of current opinion on the teaching of English, they actually originated in the years 1845, 1851, 1886, and 1894. They expressed the judgments of lay and professional groups regarding the caliber of instruction in English, and its results, during the past century. They constituted the commonly held opinions about English-teaching long before the days of the new psychology, "progressive" education, the activity movement, the project and the unit, and compulsory school attendance laws that have brought a large per cent of American youth into high-school English classes.

#### EVIDENCES OF EFFECTIVE TEACHING

Aside from the *opinions* of selected persons and groups, what are the *facts* regarding the comparative effectiveness of instruction in high-school English today and yesteryear? Are schools really teaching the fundamentals of English as well today as they did during the past century? Are teachers of English really developing

their pupils' abilities to read and write as well as teachers of years ago taught the grandparents or great-grandparents of these same pupils? Let us look at the record. In spite of the difficulties in making comparisons of this type, some facts are available.

Spelling tests originally given to ninth-grade pupils in Springfield, Massachusetts, in 1846, were administered to their more recent counterparts in 1906. The 1906 students spelled an average of 20 per cent more of the words correctly.<sup>6</sup> In 1926 the same spelling tests were given to pupils in other cities. In one of these cities, Minneapolis, seventh- and eighth-grade pupils made significantly higher scores on the spelling tests than even the 1906 ninth-graders.<sup>7</sup> In 1881 in Wilmington, Delaware, 58 per cent of fifth-grade pupils made a score of 70 or higher on a spelling test. In 1951 on the same test 64 per cent of fifth-grade pupils made a score of 70 or higher.<sup>8</sup> At least some of our schools are teaching spelling as well as they did in "the good old days."

A special set of examinations in grammar, defining words, and other subjects was taken by top students in the highest grade (typically the eighth) in each of nineteen schools in Boston during the year 1845. In 1919

<sup>4</sup> Report of the Committee on Composition and Rhetoric, Harvard College, 1894, cited in William H. Burton, "Get the Facts: Both Ours and the Other Fellow's!" *Progressive Education*, XXIX (January, 1952), 90.

<sup>5</sup> *Boston Herald*, 1894, cited in Archibald W. Anderson, *op. cit.*, pp. 15-16.

<sup>6</sup> J. L. Riley, *The Springfield Tests, 1846-1905-1906*. Springfield, Massachusetts: Holden Patent Book Cover Co., 1908.

<sup>7</sup> Ellwood P. Cubberley, *Public Education in the United States*, p. 333. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1934 (revised).

<sup>8</sup> *New York Times*, January 15, 1952, p. 18.

these same examinations were re-administered to all, not merely to a selected few, eighth-graders in Boston and some other cities. The 1919 group scored almost 20 per cent higher than the hand-picked students of 1845.<sup>9</sup> Clearly, the pupils in some modern schools are learning grammar and definitions better than did their fore-runners of a century earlier.

It is easy to see why the facts revealed by such studies as these are difficult to ascertain. Locating both the test and the results of its use many years ago constitutes a rare find for even a most thorough research worker. There is little chance of equating a class in 1952 with a group of pupils in 1852 because we simply do not know enough about any particular group of pupils of a century ago.

A number of specific studies have compared pupil achievement during the 1930's or 1940's with that of pupils long ago. No one of these studies has comprehensively evaluated the results of all phases of English instruction then and now, because of the difficulties just mentioned. But the sum of conclusions from more recent, specific studies validates the obvious conclusion of earlier research: schools of today teach spelling, grammar, and reading at least as successfully as they did years ago.<sup>10</sup>

Perhaps the most startling evidence to this effect was revealed by the armed forces' testing of inductees. According to these reports, the read-

ing rate and comprehension of World War II draftees ranked four grade levels higher than those of World War I conscriptees.<sup>11</sup>

Besides these few, but telling, direct indications of the relative merits of past and present instruction in English, so far as achievement in fundamental language skills is concerned, indirect evidence also furnishes some enlightenment. Recent, extensive comparisons of modern and traditional methods of teaching English show consistently that pupils gain as effective a grasp of fundamentals when more recently developed methods of teaching are used. The famed Eight-Year Study and the summaries of research compiled by Wrightstone permit no escape from that conclusion.<sup>12</sup>

Such evidences as have been cited may be viewed impersonally by the teacher. Their presentation here derives from no particular point of view

<sup>10</sup> a) Archibald W. Anderson, "The Charges against American Education: What Is the Evidence?" *Progressive Education*, XXIX (January, 1952), 91-105.

b) Lowry W. Harding, "How Well Are Schools Now Teaching the Basic Skills?" *Progressive Education*, XXIX (October, 1951), 7-14.

<sup>11</sup> "The Three R's, We Teach Them Better Than We Used To," in "Our American Schools," *Senior Scholastic*, LIX (November 7, 1951), 11.

<sup>12</sup> a) Dean Chamberlin, Enid Chamberlin, Neal E. Drought, and William E. Scott, *Did They Succeed in College? Adventure in American Education*, Vol. IV. New York: Harper & Bros., 1942.

b) J. Wayne Wrightstone, "Growth in Basic Skills," in J. P. Leonard and A. C. Eurich, *An Evaluation of Modern Education*, pp. 151-81. New York: D. Appleton-Century Co., Inc., 1942.

c) Lowry W. Harding, *op. cit.*

<sup>9</sup> O. W. Caldwell and S. A. Courtis, *op. cit.*, p. 85.

toward, and certainly no vested interest in, the teaching of English. The teacher of English may regard such data with the same impersonal air that he attaches to a reported rise of five points in the cost-of-living index, an outside temperature reading of 102 degrees, or the historian's report that Hitler led Germany down the road of nazism. Even amid the confusions of the contemporary world, there are some conclusions that are inescapable.

It is reasonable to conclude that teachers of English today are doing a satisfactory job of teaching the fundamentals of English if the performance of the past furnishes an adequate standard. The continual hue and cry, from within and without the profession, "to return to teaching the fundamentals," has become the sheerest nonsense. For any teacher to permit himself to believe that schools are doing less well than formerly in teaching fundamentals is utter self-deception. To permit the public to believe so is erroneous, fraudulent, and costly. The myth of a golden age, when public school level pupils learned the traditionally basic skills of English better than present-day pupils, should now be relegated to the burial ground of other myths.

#### RESPONSIBILITIES OF THE MODERN TEACHER

Fortunately the standards of the past do not limit the modern teacher of English. His selection of objectives appropriate for English courses goes far beyond the teaching of two of the

three R's—reading and 'riting. While the modern teacher of English gives much attention to improving the teaching of reading and writing, he has come to recognize other communication skills needed by the pupils. These skills include discussion techniques, skills of critical listening, and understanding of the modern functioning of language.<sup>13</sup>

*Oral expression.*—Modern teachers of English are giving increasing attention to the development by their pupils of abilities in oral expression. The teacher recognizes that pupils need to learn how to express themselves orally in a variety of situations, formal and informal. Such training includes public speaking before small and large groups. The modern teacher performs the functions of a speech teacher in the average high school, since resources do not often permit employment of a specialist in speech. Training in oral expression also encompasses conversational skills. Even high-school youth may, for example, profit from attention to their manner of speaking on the telephone. The teacher gives pupils experience in interviewing with adults; in taking part in discussions with classmates; in engaging in debates, forums, and panel discussions. If the art of conversation becomes lost in our day, it will

<sup>13</sup> For details concerning new developments and trends in the teaching of English, see *The English Language Arts*. Prepared by the Commission on the English Curriculum of the National Council of Teachers of English. New York: Appleton-Century-Croft, Inc., 1952.

not be due to the lack of efforts by modern teachers of English.

*Listening skills.*—Today the alert teacher of English trains pupils in their ability to listen critically and to learn by listening. Such training is based on recognition of the role of the individual in present-day communication. Time studies show clearly that more than half of the typical person's time spent in communication activities is given to listening—usually a passive, but potentially an active, process. Today's high-school students need to learn how to listen critically to carefully chosen radio and television programs and movies, to public speeches, to conversation with their elders, and, not the least important, to their teachers. This training calls not only for extended attention to developing criteria for proper selection of programs and performances but also for thorough study of propaganda techniques, for recognition of clichés in both political and commercial advertising, and for discovery of straight thinking in the floods of emotionally charged word symbols that inundate us.

*Experiences in creative expression.*—The modern teacher of English does not neglect his opportunity to provide for the pupils some creative experiences in dramatic expression. Formerly high-school plays were cast with the most popular pupils in the school. The teacher of today sees to it that all pupils have opportunity to share in dramatic productions. Further creative opportunities are offered through

debate, choral speaking, public speaking, work on the school newspaper, and creative writing. While these activities used to be considered extra-curricular, present-day teachers of English are bringing them more and more into the classroom so that all pupils may participate under competent supervision.

*Using reading materials effectively.*—The teacher recognizes, furthermore, the need for training pupils in specific skills required to read understandably a variety of printed materials. In the modern high-school class in English, the daily newspaper, as well as Shakespeare, has a place; contemporary magazines and books, along with the literary anthology that constitutes the textbook, comprise reading materials for the class; pupils use pamphlets and reference books, as well as workbooks, in performing assignments. The student becomes acquainted with a variety of printed materials and develops skill in locating them, in obtaining facts and ideas from them, and in organizing this newly acquired information into usable form. Some courageous teachers of English have even dared to "help" pupils with those parts of their assignments in other subjects that involve skills in language usage. In a few schools some correlation or integration of English with another subject has been arranged in advance, such as the combining of English with American history.

*Understanding the functioning of language.*—The modern teacher of

English recognizes his responsibility for building in students an understanding of the modern functioning of language. He helps pupils to identify the sources of public information and the impact of recent developments in communication on our way of life. The modern English teacher does not leave it entirely to the social-studies teacher to bring the students to an understanding of the social importance and functioning of mass media of communication, as well as their personal uses. Through a simplified study of semantic principles, pupils may learn to analyze and interpret more accurately the massive confusion of reports that they read and hear about life in our world. They may learn how to reason more logically, how to think straighter with the symbols they are accustomed to using—their native language.

#### SUMMARIZING COMMENTS

This paper has emphasized five chief points:

1. The modern teacher of high-school English is doing at least as good a job as did his counterpart of years ago in teaching the fundamentals of English: grammar, spelling, and skill in reading. The critics who continue to weep, wail, groan, and gnash their teeth, to decry and bemoan the passing of outmoded and insufficient materials and methods of teaching, should prepare to drown their sorrows in their own tears.

2. The teacher teaches his pupils how to listen critically to, and how to

learn meaningfully from, mass-communication media as well as from persons with whom the pupils have face-to-face contacts.

3. The modern teacher of high-school English provides opportunities for pupils to develop better habits and skills of speech both for everyday usage and for participation in public or staged performances.

4. He aids pupils in learning how to read with greater understanding a variety of the many kinds of printed materials that they use in out-of-school and adult life.

5. He helps students become acquainted with the operation and the social effects of mass-communication media and with other basic aspects of our modern system of lingual communication.

These modern responsibilities represent, to this writer, the outstanding accomplishments of teachers of high-school English and give some indication of probable future developments in the English curriculum. Present-day teachers of English in high schools have undertaken far more ambitious programs of instruction than their counterparts of yesteryear. Only the most reactionary would seriously dispute the desirability of attaining the objectives of these programs. The progress of the teachers in developing such well-rounded and useful programs of English and their ambitious outlook for further improvement of these programs warrant the highest commendation.

## MIDCENTURY ENROLMENTS IN HIGH-SCHOOL FOREIGN LANGUAGES

WALTER V. KAULFERS

*University of Illinois*



How does your state compare with others in per cent of public high school students enrolled in the foreign languages? The answer, given separately for French, German, Italian, Latin, Spanish, and general language, as well as for all languages combined, is contained in the following tabulations and summary. All data have been computed from information supplied in the statistical report, "Offerings and Enrolments in High-School Subjects," of the Federal Office of Education.<sup>1</sup>

Table 1 shows the enrolments in the four languages most frequently taught. It will be noted that Massachusetts ranks first in per cent of high-school pupils enrolled in French. Georgia and Louisiana come closest to the national average of 4.7 per cent, while South Dakota and Texas tie for bottom rank. Since 1933, enrolments in high-school French have declined from 10.9 per cent to 4.7 per cent, or from second to third place among the

"big four" languages in the United States.<sup>2</sup>

Since 1933, the per cent of pupils enrolled in German has dropped from a national average of 2.4 to 0.8—the greatest relative loss suffered by any of the "big four" languages in the last two decades. Fifteen states reported no enrolments in German in 1948-49 in public high schools: Alabama, Arizona, Arkansas, Florida, Georgia, Louisiana, Mississippi, Montana, New Mexico, North Carolina, South Carolina, Vermont, Virginia, West Virginia, and Wyoming. It is apparent that German is strongest in the public high schools of New Jersey and weakest in Arizona, Montana, New Mexico, and the southern states. The state of Washington stands at the national average of 0.8 per cent.

Among the states, Delaware ranks highest in per cent of students taking Latin, and Utah ranks lowest, with Florida most closely approximating the national average of 7.8 per cent.

<sup>1</sup> *Biennial Survey of Education in the United States: 1948-1950*: Chapter 5, "Offerings and Enrolments in High-School Subjects, 1948-49," pp. 16, 60, 61, 91, 103. Washington: Federal Security Agency, Office of Education, 1951.

<sup>2</sup> Mabel C. Rice, "National Summary of Offerings and Enrolments in High-School Subjects, 1948-49." Statistical Circular No. 294. Washington: Federal Security Agency, Office of Education, May, 1951.

TABLE 1

PER CENT OF STUDENTS IN GRADES IX-XII WHO WERE ENROLLED IN THE FOUR MOST FREQUENTLY TAUGHT FOREIGN LANGUAGES AND IN ALL FOREIGN LANGUAGES IN 1948-49 IN 48 STATES AND DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA AND RANK OF EACH STATE

STATE	FRENCH		GERMAN		LATIN		SPANISH		ALL FOREIGN LANGUAGES	
	Per Cent	Rank	Per Cent	Rank	Per Cent	Rank	Per Cent	Rank	Per Cent	Rank
Alabama	1.7	27			3.3	45	3.1	39	8.1	46
Arizona	.7	39			4.6	38	24.9	2	30.2	12.5
Arkansas	.7	39			2.8	47	2.0	47	5.5	49
California	2.9	20.5	.6	15	5.4	33	19.3	4	28.2	16
Colorado	1.9	24	.4	21	8.1	19	15.2	6	25.6	18
Connecticut	11.8	8	1.5	7.5	16.1	3	7.8	18	37.2	6
Delaware	8.6	10	.4	21	17.2	1	8.2	15	34.4	7
District of Columbia	11.9	7	2.0	3.5	14.8	5	15.1	7	43.8	4
Florida	1.2	32			7.7	20	12.8	9.5	21.7	22
Georgia	4.0	17			4.7	36.5	4.8	29	13.5	32
Idaho	.7	39	.1	29.5	5.7	29.5	7.6	19.5	14.1	31
Illinois	2.6	22	1.4	9.5	8.3	16.5	10.9	12	23.2	19
Indiana	1.5	28	.3	24	11.5	12	5.0	27	18.3	23
Iowa	.7	39	.2	26.5	5.5	31.5	3.0	41.5	9.4	42
Kansas	.5	45.5	.1	29.5	5.7	29.5	5.0	27	11.3	36.5
Kentucky	1.9	24	.1	29.5	6.6	22.5	3.1	39	11.7	35
Louisiana	5.3	16			3.1	46	6.6	21.5	15.0	28
Massachusetts	20.1	1	1.4	9.5	15.8	4	8.1	16	45.4	1
Maryland	8.0	13	1.5	7.5	11.8	10	8.9	13	30.2	12.5
Maine	16.8	3	.2	26.5	11.7	11	2.2	46	30.9	10
Michigan	2.9	20.5	.4	21	9.3	14	5.0	27	17.6	26
Minnesota	.6	43	1.0	11.5	3.7	42.5	2.9	43	8.2	45
Mississippi	1.3	30			4.7	36.5	2.4	45	8.4	44
Missouri	1.1	33	.3	24	3.8	41	4.5	31	9.7	41
Montana	.6	43			7.0	21	6.6	21.5	14.2	30
Nebraska	.9	36	.4	21	6.4	25	3.6	35	11.3	36.5
Nevada	3.0	18.5	.5	17	5.1	34	23.3	3	31.9	9
New Hampshire	15.5	4	.7	14	10.3	13	3.1	39	29.6	14
New Jersey	8.3	12	2.6	1	12.3	8	14.3	8	37.5	5
New Mexico	.5	45.5			3.5	44	29.8	1	33.8	8
New York	11.4	9	2.0	3.5	8.2	18	12.8	9.5	44.4	2.5
North Carolina	13.4	6			5.5	31.5	3.3	37	22.2	20
North Dakota	.6	43	.1	29.5	3.9	40	1.4	48	6.0	48
Ohio	3.0	18.5	1.0	11.5	11.9	9	5.9	24	21.8	21
Oklahoma	.4	47	*	33	3.7	42.5	6.1	23	10.2	39
Oregon	1.0	34.5	.3	24	4.0	39	4.6	30	9.9	40
Pennsylvania	6.0	14	1.7	5	13.3	7	7.6	19.5	28.6	15
Rhode Island	17.1	2	2.3	2	16.7	2	8.3	14	44.4	2.5
South Carolina	8.4	11			6.6	22.5	3.0	41.5	18.0	24
South Dakota	.2	48.5	.5	17	5.0	35	3.4	36	9.1	43
Tennessee	1.3	30	*	33	6.3	26.5	5.7	25	13.3	33
Texas	.2	48.5	*	33	2.7	48	11.5	11	14.4	29
Utah	1.3	30	.5	17	1.6	49	3.9	33	7.3	47
Vermont	14.8	5			14.7	6	1.1	49	30.6	11
Virginia	5.4	15			8.3	16.5	4.1	32	17.8	25
Washington	2.0	23	.8	13	6.3	26.5	7.9	17	17.0	27
Wisconsin	1.0	34.5	1.6	6	6.5	24	3.7	34	12.8	34
West Virginia	1.9	24			6.1	28	2.6	44	10.6	38
Wyoming	0.7	39			9.1	15	16.0	5	25.8	17
United States										
Number	255,375		43,025		422,304		443,995		1,164,699	
Per Cent	4.7		0.8		7.8		8.2		21.5	

\* Less than 0.05 per cent, or fewer than one pupil in 2,000.

For the first time in the history of American education, Latin has dropped from first to second place among the "big four" languages commonly taught in public high schools. Percentagewise, enrolments in Latin are somewhat less than half of what they were in 1933-34. The relative loss in enrolment parallels that for French but is considerably less than the loss for German. Latin is still the most popular language in the junior-senior high schools and in the junior high schools, but it takes second place to Spanish in the regular and senior high schools. It is in the latter that the largest number of foreign-language students are to be found.

New Mexico ranks highest in the per cent of public high school students enrolled in Spanish, while Delaware typifies the national average of 8.2 per cent. In Vermont, the lowest ranking state, only one student in a hundred takes Spanish. Since 1933 Spanish has climbed to first place among the languages taught in public high schools. The gain is reflected in an increase of 2 in per cents—from 6.2 to 8.2 per cent during the last two decades. The heavy losses experienced by the other languages, however, do not represent a widespread shift of students to Spanish. If Spanish had absorbed all the losses noted for French, German, and Latin, the per cent of enrolment would have increased not by 2, but by 16.

The highest-ranking state in per cent of pupils enrolled in public high school foreign language is Massachu-

setts, with Rhode Island and New York vying for second place. Percentagewise, each of these states enrolls over eight times as large a proportion of high-school students as the lowest-ranking state, Arkansas. Of all the states, Florida most closely approximates the national average of 21.5 per cent. With few exceptions, the languages are strongest in the eastern states and relatively weak in the southern states. Since 1933, when the foreign languages enrolled 35.5 per cent of public high school pupils, there has been a decrease of 14 percentage points, or an average net loss of approximately 1 percentage point per year.

In Table 2 are given data on the enrolments of students in Italian and in general language. Italian is strongest in New York state. In the case of Missouri, the size of the enrolment seems to indicate that the language is limited to one or two classes in a single school.

General language, as an introductory or exploratory-guidance course, was reported as being offered in twenty states. The size of enrolments, however, indicates that the offering is often limited to one city or school in a state and, at times, apparently to one relatively small class. Pennsylvania, New York, Massachusetts, Michigan, and New Jersey are the leading "general-language" states, each with an enrolment of well over a thousand students.

The languages taught in fewer than six states are shown in Table 3. The

enrolments range from 3,270 for Hebrew to 14 for Russian.

#### SUMMARY

1. Since 1933, when the foreign languages enrolled 35.5 per cent of the

TABLE 2

NUMBER OF STUDENTS IN GRADES VII-XII WHO WERE ENROLLED IN ITALIAN AND IN GENERAL LANGUAGE IN 1948-49 AND RANK OF EACH STATE

STATE	ITALIAN		GENERAL LANGUAGE	
	Number	Rank	Number	Rank
Arkansas.....			20	19
California.....	119	8	787	6
Connecticut.....	1,106	4	393	9
Florida.....			52	18
Georgia.....			54	17
Illinois.....	955	6	366	10
Indiana.....			58	16
Iowa.....			95	14
Kansas.....			10	20
Massachusetts.....	1,431	3	1,258	3
Michigan.....			1,240	4
Minnesota.....			104	13
Missouri.....	32	9		
New Jersey.....	2,612	2	1,238	5
New York.....	8,231	1	1,928	2
Ohio.....			642	7
Pennsylvania.....	1,040	5	3,705	1
Rhode Island.....	739	7	246	11
Texas.....			525	8
Virginia.....			239	12
Washington.....			60	15
United States.....	16,265		13,020	

pupils attending public secondary day schools, the per cent of enrolment in the foreign languages has decreased to 21.5 per cent. This represents a decrease of 14 percentage points, or a net loss of approximately one percentage point per year. Because of the increase in the number of pupils now attending secondary schools, this loss is not so obvious as it would be if the

high-school population were static. If the same per cent of high-school students were enrolled in the foreign languages today as in 1933, however, the number of teachers and pupils would be almost twice as great as it is at present.

2. French and Latin enrol less than half as large a per cent of students as they did in 1933. German has been the heaviest loser. The per cent of enrolment here is only a third of what it was in the early thirties. Spanish has shown a net gain in per cents of 2 and is today the most popular of the foreign languages taught in public secondary day schools. Spanish, however, has not absorbed the losses sustained

TABLE 3

ENROLMENTS IN LANGUAGES TAUGHT IN FEWER THAN SIX STATES

Language	Enrolment	States in Which Taught
Bohemian.....	54	(1) Illinois
Greek.....	543	(5) Ill., Ind., Pa., Mass., R.I.
Hebrew.....	3,270	(1) New York
Norse.....	172	(2) Minn., Wash.
Polish.....	1,056	(5) Ill., Mass., N.J., Ohio, Wis.
Portuguese.....	320	(3) Calif., Mass., R.I.
Russian.....	14	(1) Washington
Swedish.....	310	(4) Ill., Mass., Minn., N.Y.
Total.....	5,739	

by French, German, or Latin. If all students who formerly enrolled in these languages had transferred to Spanish, the per cent of gain in Spanish would be eight times as great as it actually is.

3. At midcentury, Spanish enrolled 443,995 secondary-school pupils, or 8.2 per cent of the number of young people attending public secondary day schools. The comparable figures for French are 255,375 pupils, or 4.7 per cent; for German, 43,025 pupils, or 0.8 per cent; and for Latin, 422,304 pupils, or 7.8 per cent. Italian enrolled 16,265 students in nine states.

4. At midcentury, twenty states reported offerings in general language, with a total enrolment of 13,020 pupils. Pennsylvania, New York, Massachusetts, Michigan, and New Jersey report the largest numbers of students in this offering.

5. The total enrolment in foreign

languages in public secondary day schools at midcentury was 1,164,699, or 21.5 per cent of all pupils attending such schools. The state with the highest per cent of enrolment in languages was Massachusetts (45.4 per cent); and the lowest, Arkansas (5.5 per cent). French is strongest in Massachusetts; German, in New Jersey; Italian, in New York; Latin, in Delaware; Spanish, in New Mexico; and general language, in Pennsylvania.

6. Fewer than six states reported public secondary day school classes in Bohemian, Greek, Hebrew, Norse, Polish, Portuguese, Russian, and Swedish, with a total combined enrolment of 5,739.

## SOME EARMARKS OF INEFFECTIVE AND OF GOOD TEACHING

CHARLES BRODSKY

*Central Commercial and Technical High School, Newark, New Jersey*



THE CHANGING NATURE of the secondary-school population in the past ten to twenty-five years has raised a problem to which too many teachers have not found an answer. The majority of the students in an average big-city school come from substandard homes in slum areas. Most come from homes where books, magazines, pictures, and other cultural influences are almost completely lacking. Absent also are the attitudes toward culture and learning which are associated with middle-class standards. Although more children go to college today than in the preceding generation, so great has been the influx into the secondary schools of children from working-class homes that it is an unusual school where students preparing for college equal more than a very small per cent of those who have no such intention.

It was not always so. In past decades the middle-class boy or girl was the predominant type of student in our secondary schools. The schools are approaching the admirable goal of reaching "all the children of all the people," but many educators are still at a loss as to how to teach them.

It has been pointed out that the average experienced teacher is himself usually drawn from a middle-class milieu. He is confronted each term with more and more children from a cultural field unlike his—with children whose interests are nonacademic, whose attitudes are different, and who are nonverbally minded.

How have teachers reacted to this? Visit any teacher's room in a typical high school and listen to the complaints about the students. They run something like this:

The present bunch does not want to learn anything.

They have no real work habits.

They just have no culture. They have such miserable home influences.

Students today just cannot read. You can't give them reference work or library assignments. They don't do homework.

They have no aesthetic sense, no appreciation for the finer things in life—and do not want any.

What manners!

They are so different from the students we had ten years ago [or fifteen, or twenty, or thirty years ago].

The bell rings, the teachers leave their grumblings behind, and each

goes out to meet the situation. How? Here are five possible ways.

#### UNSUCCESSFUL TEACHERS

*Mr. Taskmaster.*—He is determined to maintain the educational standards of yesteryear. His philosophy is to assign plenty of homework in the textbook and give stiff tests daily. He says:

"Mark them down regardless of how many fail. If the class recitation is poor, as it usually is, lecture. Give it to them yourself. Make sure that someone tells them the right things."

*Mr. Softie.*—He starts by recognizing the "low caliber" of his students, their unwillingness or inability to accomplish the tasks he might give them. He does not even try to get much across. He recommends:

"Be pleasant in class, amusing if you can—if they think you're regular, you have no problems. Don't try too hard, it will not work. Lecture most of the time. It's easier, it keeps things moving somewhat. Let them fill in the last word of an occasional sentence to keep them alert. Pass all who come often enough. Don't bother with tests. Also, forget about keeping up with your subject. You certainly know enough for these children. They won't be able to handle outside work anyway."

*Mr. Practical.*—He tries to fall in between the two extremes mentioned above. He feels that, if he does his work normally, relying on reason, he will get along. He tells himself:

"Don't fret yourself about the fact that you seem to be accomplishing little. It's the kind of youngsters we're getting. You might as well use your old outlines, cutting out some details here and there. So you feel that you're getting a little lazy. Too bad, there was once a time. . . . Still, if you're going to keep your equilibrium around here. . . ."

*Mr. Unhappy.*—He is the bitter, often sarcastic type. He places the same hard problems of years past before his classes and "bawls out" those who do not understand. Then, at the end of the term, he passes most, because he "knew they couldn't get the work anyway." He says that the teachers cannot forget the kinds of students and the work that formerly distinguished the school. He will tell the students how poor they are. He complains:

"You can't blame me for resenting the waste of my scholarship on these 'lugs.' Anyway, I am still keeping up some private research at home, a little study of Spencer's *Faerie Queene*. No, nothing I'd bother talking about to these classes of mine."

*Effects on teacher and students.*—Much is said about the bad effects of television on students. Television may be having an even worse effect on the unsuccessful teachers described. Feeling that the youngsters cannot even succeed with the work of the textbooks, lecturing to them in the false hope of teaching them what they have "neglected" to study, the teacher

feels little desire and need to keep up in his field and to spend time searching for enriching materials. He becomes a lover of television fights or a viewer of give-away shows. He is just another middle-class citizen trying to forget the day's toil by mild diversion. He is not a teacher in the best sense the term implies.

Equally entitled to pity is the stern taskmaster who says, "I will make these children 'toe the line' or they will just flunk themselves." He gives his daily reading assignment in the textbook, his daily quiz, and his zeros for more than half the class. He feels he is upholding educational standards, and he lets his colleagues realize how much they are letting him and the other few guardians of the educational system down. His effect on the youngsters is debilitating. He swells the list of early drop-outs. He stamps the mark "unsuccessful" on many an able youngster. He reinforces the non-verbally minded student in his feeling that school is foreign, unrealistic, meant for others, and unnecessary for the real struggle with life's problems. Our high-minded pedagogue has overlooked the well-known fact that schools must fit the child, not the child the school.

#### THE SUCCESSFUL TEACHER

*Mr. Success.*—He seldom feels completely successful. He has private misgivings about meeting the problem adequately, but he does not stop trying. He does not seek to escape his

problem. He does not bear down on his pupils in what he knows will be a futile attempt, and he does not martyr himself on the altars of ignorance.

He studies his methods. He usually decides that the ordinary recitation from the textbook plus outside reading—a method he found so satisfactory in the past—does not add up to anything but a dull lesson and an unwilling student. He finds himself searching for different methods in order to give variety to his teaching. He appreciates the ancient adage that "one picture is worth a thousand words." His students draw more maps, they take more field trips, see more educational films. They listen to community leaders who are invited to discuss labor problems before the class or to read Robert Frost's poems. The successful teacher calls upon students to interview many people, to write of their own out-of-school work experiences, to bring in special clippings from the "yellow" journals which they are accustomed to reading.

He does not overlook the real capacities of most of his students. He recognizes the fact that pupils from slum areas, pupils with few middle-class cultural enrichments, still have educational needs that can and must be satisfied. The task is not easy, nor is it always as satisfying as some of the educators specializing in theory would have us believe. He has his days of small achievement. Nevertheless, he is consumed with the passion to teach the children before him; to get them to

acquire, through a variety of means, the educational values which are necessary for *all* citizens of our land.

He is not content, however, to leave them on their own level. As he establishes more rapport with his class by having them succeed on their own level, he introduces them to the books, the magazines, the papers he would like them to make use of. The instructor realizes that the important end is what attitudes the child has, what understanding he has acquired of the world around him, what aesthetic values he has gained.

It goes without saying that the successful teacher never makes his students feel that they are inferior to the others he has taught in the past. Knowing his pupils, he does not expect them to rush into Shakespeare cheerfully, nor to study Muzzey carefully, even when these studies seem useless to the youngsters (as they also may have seemed to former more ambitious, college-preparatory students). He does not bemoan their lack of work habits, their noisier but more natural "roughhouse" when the class assembles, their acceptance of low standards of civic morality, their unwillingness to talk before a group, their unintellectual attitude. He knows, as Allison Davis has pointed out, that there are valid reasons why this behavior is common to children from the poorer areas.<sup>1</sup>

<sup>1</sup> Allison Davis, "Ability and Survival," *Survey*, LXXXVII (February, 1951), 60-63. See also by the same author "Socio-economic Influences upon Children's Learning," *School Life*, XXXIII (March, 1951), 87.

#### BRINGING OUT THE BEST IN STUDENTS

A good teacher takes his children as they are, knowing that they will respond to a friendly, man-to-man approach. If he is enthusiastic about his subject, there is almost nothing of a higher nature that he cannot introduce to these youngsters—if he goes about it the right way. Examples by the hundreds abound in any big-city high school of the amazing quality of work that the good teachers bring forth. The same youngsters, dubbed unpromising by teachers trying to get them to learn American government in a formalized way, often astound everyone by their part in the activities of the Senior class. They organize themselves into councils which run "proms," publish newspapers, put on class-day programs—in short, do an enviable job of practicing democracy.

Recently in one school the social-studies department encouraged the students to write their own "History Digest." Students were asked to write their views on the news of the day and on the problems of their school, their city, and their nation. Their comments were invited on any of the historical events or personalities that they were studying. The results were amazing. The student editorial board was busy sifting the best from hundreds of articles with titles such as "My Views on Race Relations," "I Live in a Slum," "Thoughts on Columbus," "What's Wrong with Our Student Council," "Education under Mussolini," "We're Right about

Korea," "We're Going Too Socialist," "Fighters I've Liked," and "The Draft of Eighteen-Year-Olds."

The result was a 47-page mimeographed booklet containing the uncensored and stimulating ideas of some 75 students. At five cents apiece, 850 copies were sold in one day. Students talked about the articles for days, challenging the authors and each other on many of them; history was alive for these students. The booklet astounded many of the faculty. Over and over members of the faculty made such comments as these: I didn't think our kids would have been interested in that stuff." "How do you get them to do it?"

The good teacher not only studies his pupils but also studies his subject. He looks with sharp eyes at what needs to be stressed and what can be omitted. He shocks himself often at how many of the dreary recitations of secondhand facts formerly memorized are better left out. He finds that presenting a firsthand source is often more interesting and valuable for learning than tens of pages of textbook

material. Studying the Constitution itself in class and preceding or following it with a film, such as "Servant of the People" or "How a Bill Becomes a Law," plus a mock constitutional convention acted out in class is better for learning than anything a textbook writer ever put down on paper. And teachers know that doing this leads some students to the very reading materials they otherwise would have shunned.

#### CONCLUDING COMMENT

Most teachers have learned to know their students and their subjects. Others sense the problem in part but are unhappy that the whole picture is not bright. Any experienced teacher can study his situation and himself and easily see the first steps that are necessary to improve his educational efforts, with greater happiness and benefit for his students and himself. The teacher must realize that his professional and personal success can be measured by how well he draws out the best that his students have to offer.

## SELECTED REFERENCES ON EXTRA-CLASS ACTIVITIES<sup>1</sup>

CLAYTON M. GJERDE AND MARVIN D. ALCORN  
*San Diego State College*



EVER SINCE the introduction of student activities into the school there has been the task of co-ordinating these activities with the class instructional program. Scheduling, financing, sponsorship, extent of faculty control, and eligibility for participation have been but a few of the problems that have plagued administrators. However, certain recent trends have been helpful in clarifying the relationship between student activities and class programs.

In the first place, a broader interpretation has been made of the *curriculum*. Now it is becoming a widely accepted fact that any activities of educative value under the direction of the school are considered a part of the curriculum. Second, many so-called "extra-curriculum" activities have been incorporated into the daily class schedule as legitimate subjects for credit toward graduation. Finally, more emphasis is being placed on vitalizing the classroom program by the use of procedures which have proved successful in the student-activity program. As another step toward breaking down the dichotomy of two competing programs within the school, the

authors of this annotated bibliography have suggested that the term "extra-class" be substituted for "extra-curriculum" in references made to student activities.

The following references are selected from materials on extra-class activities that have been published between December 1, 1951, and December 31, 1952. The literature in this field continues to present a wide variety of problems and proposals, ranging from broad and general discussions of philosophy to specific suggestions for administration of extra-class activity programs and for actual supervision of specific activities.

486. ALLEN, J. E., JR. "Relationship of Extra-Curricular Activities to Salaries," *Harvard Educational Review*, XXII (Spring, 1952), 141-49.

Presents a thorough discussion of the issues involved in the relationship of extra-curriculum activities to salaries and proposes possible solutions.

487. ANDERSON, KENNETH E. *A Summary Report to the North Central High Schools of Kansas on Criterion 2: Pupil Activity Program, Library Service, Guidance*

<sup>1</sup> See also Item 175 (Smith) in the list of selected references appearing in the February, 1953, issue of the *School Review*.

*Service.* Kansas Studies in Education, Vol. III. Lawrence, Kansas: University of Kansas, January, 1952. Pp. 24.

Presents the results of a survey of 207 Kansas schools, which includes data supplied by 144 schools on participation in school government, school organizations, and administration of the activity program.

488. BAKER, JANET BASSETT JOHNSON. "U.N. Youth Develop Global Consciousness," *School Activities*, XXIII (May, 1952), 285-87.

Relates how the United Nations Youth Club of Forest Park High School, Baltimore, promotes international understanding by means of various types of club meetings, assembly programs, exhibits, and international correspondence.

489. BARR, RICHARD A. "The Oyster Club: Can Club Activities Change Attitudes?" *Clearing House*, XXVII (October, 1952), 109-11.

Sketches briefly the objectives and operation of a club for high-school boys and presents the results of an attempt to evaluate attitude changes of club members over a period of one school year. Suggests that club activities may be overrated in their ability to change attitudes.

490. BEAR, WILLARD. "Making a Student Body Budget," *School Activities*, XXIII (March, 1952), 219-20.

Outlines seven steps in activity budgeting.

491. BOTTS, ROBERT E. "Lakewood's Special Interest Club Program," *California Journal of Secondary Education*, XXVII (March, 1952), 153-57.

Describes a club program that attempts to meet the "exploratory" objective of the junior high school. Includes purposes, procedures, and problems for consideration.

492. BRAUN, CATHERINE H. "The School Assembly," *School Activities*, XXIII (February, 1952), 181-80.

Considers the "why," "what," "who," "where," and "when" of the school assembly in assuring a successful program.

493. BROWN, IDA STEWART. "Group Development in a Junior High School Student Council," *Educational Leadership*, IX (May, 1952), 496-501.

Reports the findings of a research team studying a junior high school student council in action.

494. BURS, WILLIAM E. "Extracurricular Discussion in the Secondary School," *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals*, XXXVI (May, 1952), 89-101.

Describes a new type of program of inter-scholastic discussion-debate activities. This issue of the *Bulletin* also includes other articles of interest on extra-class speech activities.

495. CAHN, M. M. "Music as an Extracurricular Activity," *Music Educators Journal*, XXXVIII (April, 1952), 20-21, 24.

Admits that music has won an accepted and honored position in the curriculum but suggests that its place in the extra-curriculum program should not therefore be neglected.

496. CALLENDER, WESLEY P., JR. "More Dramatics for Personality Adjustment," *Clearing House*, XXVI (January, 1952), 301-3.

Discusses a number of mental-hygiene and personality adjustment possibilities in dramatic activities and advocates a more extensive program of student dramatic activities as an aid to personality adjustment.

497. CARLSON, THORSTEN R., and MOORE, EDWENA M. "A School Council Aids Learning," *Educational Leadership*, IX (April, 1952), 438-43.

Describes how a student council was initiated and conducted by elementary-school pupils and gives suggestions concerning procedures and learning outcomes that are also applicable to the secondary-school level.

498. CEDERBERG, THEODORE. "The Big Show," *School Activities*, XXIII (January, 1952), 150-53.

Provides a "basic recipe for a better-than-average school or club variety show" and illustrates thirteen suggestions or themes which may be used.

499. CHAMBERS, LOIS MERWIN. "San Joaquin Valley Girls' Playday Organization," *California Journal of Secondary Education*, XXVII (April, 1952), 229-32.

Outlines the development of an organization within an area including fifty-four secondary schools which has as its purpose the formulation of "approved standards for participation in playday activities."

500. COUPER, GEORGE P. "The Future Farmers Belong to You," *California Journal of Secondary Education*, XXVII (March, 1952), 176-79.

Outlines aims, policies, and achievements of the Future Farmers of America and shows the organization's vital relation to the curriculum and to the community.

501. DIETERT, CHESTER C. "What Is Wrong with Basketball?" *School Activities*, XXIV (December, 1952), 129-30.

Raises several penetrating questions useful in evaluating basketball activity in any school.

502. DODSON, TAYLOR. "Officials Are Important," *School Activities*, XXIV (September, 1952), 13-14, 34.

Stresses co-operation of student participants, coaches, officials, and spectators in making athletic events more valuable, successful, and enjoyable.

503. ELICKER, PAUL E. (editor). "Vitalizing Student Activities in the Secondary School," *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals*, XXXVI (February, 1952), 1-228.

Beginning with a summary of "Critical Problems in the Administration of Student Activities," by Edgar G. Johnston, the en-

tire issue of the *Bulletin* is devoted to issues and problems of all phases of a student-activity program. The editor indicates two noticeable developments during the past ten years: (1) "The student-activity program is now an established part of the total school program. (2) "School administrators are more concerned with control of all student activities."

504. ESTRIN, HERMAN A. "Effective Training Procedures for Faculty Advisers," *School Activities*, XXIV (December, 1952), 123-25.

Describes the function and accomplishments of a council of faculty advisers.

505. EVANS, CAROLYN C. "Student Leaders Are Made," *NEA Journal*, XVI (November, 1952), 518-19.

A student describes camp activities and benefits of the Denver Leadership Training Conference for high-school student leaders.

506. FERDIAN, JOHN J., JR. "A Club and News Column as Influences in Guidance," *School Review*, LX (October, 1952), 424-29.

Describes the objectives and activities of a student club organized to supplement the guidance functions of the counselor and points out the public relations value that a news column in local newspapers has for the guidance program.

507. GRASSELL, E. MILTON. "Linden's Student and Teacher Camp Conference," *Clearing House*, XXVI (February, 1952), 348-50.

Reports on the planning, operating, and evaluating of an annual preschool camp conference which included teachers, class officers, and student-body officers of the high school at Linden, California.

508. HEARN, ARTHUR C. "Evaluating the School Activity Program," *School Activities*, XXIII (February, 1952), 179-80.

Suggests three techniques to be used in the evaluation of school activity programs

—the check list, the opinion poll, and behavioral changes of pupils.

509. HELBLE, HERBERT H. "Commencement Programs That Click," *School Activities*, XXIII (January, 1952), 148-49. Offers two suggestions for improving commencement programs and describes a number of excellent programs which deviated from the conventional stereotype.
510. HELBLE, HERBERT H. "Extra-class Activities," *NEA Journal*, XLI (February, 1952), 75-77. Indicates four fundamental needs of youth that are met by extra-class activities, gives practical hints for successful administration, and lists six unsolved problems.
511. HESS, WALTER E. "Personality: How Student Councils Develop It," *Clearing House*, XXVI (March, 1952), 420-22. Maintains that the student council can be an important factor in developing the personalities of students and lists seventeen qualities of a school-council sponsor which are believed influential in developing favorable personality characteristics in students.
512. JOHNSTON, EDGAR G., and FAUNCE, ROLAND C. *Student Activities in Secondary Schools*, New York: Ronald Press Co., 1952. Pp. x+370. Accepts "that point of view which incorporates the extra-curricular activity into the curriculum," and then, on the basis of probable continued distinction between the curriculum and extra-curriculum activity, goes on to consider the particular contributions which a variety of activities can make to the total school program.
513. JUERGENSMERER, THELMA. "Logan on the Air: Weekly Dramatic and Choral Shows," *Clearing House*, XXVI (March, 1952), 396-98. Describes the development and presentation of weekly radio programs by the mixed chorus and the dramatic club of the high school at Logan, West Virginia, and suggests that such activities have much educational value.
514. KELLER, RUTH MAYNARD. "How To Keep Elections from Becoming Popularity Contests," *School Activities*, XXIII (April, 1952), 243-55. Suggests ways to provide for better selection of officers in student government, in classes, and in clubs.
515. KLOPF, GORDON. *Planning Student Activities in the High School*. Madison, Wisconsin: Bureau of Information and Program Services, Extension Division, University of Wisconsin, 1951. Pp. 113. In a simple, practical manner, covers various aspects of an activity program, such as leadership, parliamentary procedure, program-planning, and publicity.
516. LUCAS, MARJORIE. "Student Activities at Sequoia Union High School," *California Journal of Secondary Education*, XXVII (April, 1952), 223-26. Shows the development of student activities at Redwood City, California, in four areas—administrative, athletic, cultural, and social—with emphasis on service to the school, to one's group, and to the community.
517. LYNCH, JAMES M., JR. "Vail Teachers Are Publicity Specialists," *Clearing House*, XXVII (October, 1952), 86-88. Describes a public relations program in which teachers specialize in various approaches to school publicity, including several in the nature of school activities.
518. MCKOWN, HARRY C. *Extracurricular Activities*. New York: Macmillan Co., 1952 (third edition). Pp. xvi+666. This revision of an earlier work presents a thorough discussion of the purposes and principles of extra-curriculum activities in general and gives individual attention to more than a dozen specific activities.
519. MCKOWN, HARRY C. "Child Development through Extra-curricular Activities," *Education*, LXXII (December, 1951), 272-77.

Illustrates how extra-curriculum activities contribute to child development in the following areas: (1) physical, (2) social, (3) growth for responsible community membership, (4) curiosity, (5) accomplishment, (6) recreational, and (7) spiritual.

520. MANNING, GEORGE A. "What Are Sound Policies for Controlling Non-athletic National Contests and Activities Offered to Schools by Outside Organizations?" *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals*, XXXVI (March, 1952), 29-33. Summarizes recommendations of the National Contest Committee for controlling nonathletic contests.
521. MILLER, FLOYD A., and DAHL, SAM. "A Survey of Student Activity Programs," *School Activities*, XXIII (May, 1952), 275-77. Describes an extensive survey of Nebraska Central Association high schools in the areas of student participation in school government, general evaluation of school organizations and activities, and administration of the program. Presents significant implications for developing more widespread student participation and responsibility.
522. MUELLER, KATE H. "Training for Citizenship through Student Activities," *Personnel and Guidance Journal*, XXXI (December, 1952), 162-66. Maintains that citizenship training through student-government organization will fall far short of its possibilities unless character-training becomes one of the major objectives and receives the attention it deserves.
523. NEUBAUER, DOROTHY (editor). "The Assembly Program as a Learning Experience," *National Elementary Principal*, XXXI (December, 1951), 1-40. Devotes entire issue to the values of the assembly program and to planning and developing worth-while assembly activities. Although directed toward the elementary school, the articles carry many implications for the secondary school as well.
524. RINGNESS, T. A. "Maybe We Should Let Football into the Classroom," *Nation's Schools*, L (September, 1952), 82-84. Maintains that activity programs are successful because they follow the rules of educational psychology and suggests that "instead of drafting the outside activities into a formal program, we might do well to consider making the formal program more like the activities."
525. ROMINE, S. A. "Administering Pupil Activities in Secondary Schools," *Journal of Educational Research*, XLV (April, 1952), 615-21. Reports the results of a study of school activities in 230 secondary schools in Colorado. An attempt was made to classify activities as curricular, co-curricular, and extra-curricular, and to evaluate each in terms of their contribution to pupil growth and development.
526. SARGENT, EDWARD H., JR. "Student Radio Show Sold to National Sponsor," *Clearing House*, XXVI (January, 1952), 291-94. Although the author has not made a specific point of it, his description of a Radio Club which grew out of a high-school course in radio is an excellent example of the interrelatedness of activities in and out of class in the modern school.
527. SAVAGE, F. W. "An Evaluation of Music Contest-Festivals," *School Activities*, XXIII (February, 1952), 187-89. Attempts to clarify the objectives of music festivals, contests, and clinics, with special implications for the music program in the public schools of Texas.
528. SEIDNER, EARLE R., and LONG, C. DARL. "What Are the Most Effective Methods and Practices for Eliminating Fraternities and Sororities?" *Bulletin of*

*the National Association of Secondary-School Principals*, XXXVI (March, 1952), 162-79.

Two principals outline the procedures used in eliminating strongly entrenched fraternities and sororities from their schools.

529. SHANNON, J. R. "The Vanishing Wall between Courses and Activities," *Clearing House*, XXVII (September, 1952), 8-12.

Maintains that the dichotomy between high-school curriculum and extra-curriculum activities is vanishing and that this is a trend favorable to the total process of high-school education, from the standpoint both of motivation and of teaching method.

530. SHIPP, FREDERIC T. "School Clubs for Every Girl," *School Activities*, XXIII (March, 1952), 211-12.

Describes how Abraham Lincoln High School of San Jose, California, has provided more adequate girls' activities by organizing "service clubs" in which 98 per cent of the girls are enrolled.

531. STRUB, GEORGE R. "Plainfield's Student News Bureau," *Clearing House*, XXVII (October, 1952), 89-91.

Describes a student news bureau through which some four hundred news articles written by high-school students found their way into the local newspaper. Presents a classified list of news topics which were included.

532. "Symposium on Secret Societies in Highschool," *NEA Journal*, XLI (March, 1952), 141-42.

Outlines the "legal status of secret societies, reasons for their existence," and four

main objections to them. The article also describes how a number of schools have succeeded in eliminating secret societies.

533. TARLOW, MILTON. "The '3 P's' of School Publications," *School Activities*, XXIII (May, 1952), 278-80.

Suggests how the school publications may become more than "sheets of nonsense" by application of three yardsticks before publication—prospectus, purpose, and policy.

534. TOMPKINS, ELLSWORTH. "Extra Pay for Extra Work?" *School Activities*, XXIII (February, 1952), 196-98.

Recommends the use of an activity period within the daily time schedule as one answer to the problem of extra pay for extra work.

535. TOMPKINS, ELLSWORTH. "A Survey of Extraclass Activities," *School Activities*, XXIV (December, 1952), 115-17.

Reveals interesting data obtained from a survey of twenty-seven California Bay Area secondary schools, indicating kinds of information which other school systems might wish to obtain.

536. WALKER, RITA. "Building Better Yearbooks," *School Activities*, XXIV (December, 1952), 127-29.

Offers excellent suggestions on how to improve the high-school yearbook.

537. WALTERS, GEORGE F. "Evaluating Student Council Procedures," *School Activities*, XXIV (October, 1952), 59-63.

Reports the results of a survey of a sampling of public high schools throughout the country. Deals primarily with student-government procedures.

## EDUCATIONAL WRITINGS



### REVIEWS AND BOOK NOTES

EDGAR G. JOHNSTON and ROLAND C. FAUNCE, *Student Activities in Secondary Schools: Enrichment of the Educational Program*. New York 10: Ronald Press Co., 1952. Pp. x+370. \$4.50.

The solid values of student activities in educating youth in the skills and responsibilities of democratic group action are ably developed throughout this practical volume on the activity program. *Student Activities in Secondary Schools* was written as a textbook for teachers and administrators in training. As stated by the authors in the Preface, the central purpose of the book is to present "A reconsideration and reappraisal [of the various aspects of the extra-curriculum program] in compact form for use in college courses" (p. i). It is the opinion of this reviewer that the authors have accomplished that end rather well, using a style that is reasonably free of the heavy and stereotyped phrases of most college textbooks in education.

Professors Johnston and Faunce have not undertaken an exhaustive treatise for the advanced student or experienced administrator in secondary education. Philosophical issues and research studies are reviewed as they contribute to a clearer presentation of operating principles, functions, and good practice in the several types of student activities commonly found in secondary schools.

The fundamental idea that activities are essential to effective learning whether in the classroom or outside the classroom is emphasized throughout the book. The authors properly caution their readers, however:

Some enthusiasts have made the mistake of taking for granted that anything which is

extracurricular must be *ipso facto* sound education. We need to recognize that the values from any school situation are not automatic but merely potential [pp. 11-12].

Johnston and Faunce warn that student councils, athletics, clubs, and other popular types of extra-curriculum activities may serve to develop false values and negative attitudes if not given intelligent direction. Nonetheless, it seems probable that, as long as classroom instruction remains preoccupied with routine recitation procedures, extra-curriculum activities will constitute the chief potential for character education and for training in democratic social and civic values in the secondary school.

The two introductory chapters present a sound, although somewhat sketchy, review of the nature of student activities and their functions in meeting the characteristic needs of youth. Despite a rather superficial interpretation of data from studies on drop-outs and an occasional dogmatic statement (such as this one on page 24, "A school in which students do not participate in planning is thus a school in which the learning process does not function"), the authors achieve a substantial and fresh treatment of the foundations of student activities.

Ten chapters dealing with principles, trends, and practices in conducting activities in special fields make up the main body of the book. A chapter is devoted to each of the established types of student activities. Included are chapters on pupil participation in the administration of the school, classroom and home-room organization, school assemblies, clubs, athletics, music, speech, publications, social programs, and camping.

The chapters on student participation, classroom and home-room organization, school assemblies, clubs, school publications, and camping and outdoor activities are well done and bring together much of the more recent literature on these activities, and successful experiences of good schools with them. The suggested activities and illustrative projects in these chapters are excellent. Descriptions of outstanding projects, such as the follow-up study of students who dropped out of school which was conducted by the Senior class in Royal Oak (Michigan) High School, the joint commencement of the high schools in Denver, the social-science forum of the Benjamin Franklin High School of Rochester, New York, and the school-camping programs in Michigan, should give prospective sponsors some valuable guides.

To a considerable extent the chapters on athletics, music, speech, and social activities follow the pattern of earlier works on extra-curriculum activities. In the chapter on athletics the authors engage in some sermonizing without offering sinners much hope of salvation. It is important to point out to the prodigal the error of his ways, but it is also important to give him strength. A historical account of the regulation of athletic competition in Michigan is interesting but not very solid spiritual nourishment.

The chapters on the school and the community, on administering the activity program, and on evaluating student activities combine descriptions of newer developments with presentations of sound working principles in these areas. A brief look at some of the limitations and abuses of "going" activity programs provides a realistic note of caution in the final chapter.

Professors Johnston and Faunce do professional workers in secondary education a service in bringing together in a single volume much that is new in theory and practice in the significant and rapidly moving field of student activities. The sound perspective, based on their own extensive experi-

ence, with which they interpret these developments makes this a valuable textbook.

L. A. VAN DYKE

State University of Iowa



VICTOR JELENKO, *The Republic of the Schools*.  
New York 16: Exposition Press, 1952.  
Pp. 224. \$3.00.

This book, which is dedicated to the National Congress of Parents and Teachers, is definitely a blueprint for the rehabilitation of democratic education in our schools. On the theory that education is too serious a business for the professional educators to carry the load alone, we welcome this irritating treatise from a layman. The Foreword by Gerald Johnson gets this critical study off to a good start.

Listing some of the names of prominent educators to whom acknowledgments are made indicates that this courageous advocate of better citizenship education has had exceptionally sound backing: John Dewey, Frank Aydelotte, Abraham Flexner, William Kilpatrick, Frank Graham, Willard Givens, James Loeb, John Studebaker, Richard Welling. In this connection it should be stated here that the author reviewed carefully the widely featured ideas of Robert Hutchins, Henry Barnard, Horace Mann, and Thomas Jefferson, which gave him a solid base for the kind of reasoning he has demonstrated.

Victor Jelenko, in *The Republic of the Schools*, has exposed the weaknesses of our general social structure and community life. He failed to discover reassuring evidence that our youth are taught the type of thinking indispensable in our modern institutional relations. We have hitherto neglected to provide a truly satisfying mode of living for our young people, who thus mature ill equipped to keep the peace and prevent economic distress. Particularly do we err in not inviting the patrons of our schools to compare idealis-

tic principles of democracy with the way these academic formulations are misused in the give-and-take of public and private life.

Characteristic of literary style employed by the author is his statement that the "sick body politic suggests the kind of dirty, corrupt, infected, diseased politics by which we now choose our policies and representatives." He makes much of the parallel between society and the human body, which both deserve an unimpaired bloodstream and a sufficient supply of what it takes to maintain health. He has searched out the sore spots in society and suggested methods of curing them through education. Jelenko sincerely believes in the efficacy of pedagogical medicine to remedy the contaminated political, economic, social, and cultural areas that should shame us into immediate action.

The chapter titles are arresting: "Statesmen Plead and Citizens Dread," "The Tragedy and the Hope," "Bad Habits and Good Habits," "Top-heavy Athletics and Balanced Curricula," "Internship in Politics," "Democracy Must Be Earned," "The Perfectibility of Man." The central or key chapter is the sixteenth, which attempts to outline a practical program of curriculum reconstruction. To the reviewer the program seems feasible and psychologically well grounded. Much of what is

proposed is already being set up, with favorable outcomes that apparently have not yet been called to the attention of the author. In fact, for a full generation we teachers have held ourselves accountable for more positive and fruitful social instruction, with laboratory exercises and beneficial field trips.

One of the best features of this volume is the attention given to the international scene, a careful analysis having been made of Axis educational activities, which overemphasized the molding of youth into servants of an immoral state while we have been underestimating the necessity for specific training in self-government and wholesome citizenship. This challenging thought is introduced: Why do the nations opposed to communism and other totalitarian systems approach their moral responsibility so slowly and complacently? Especially, why have not our own educational institutions made more rapid strides in rectifying the shortcomings of our social and civic life? The author's main contribution is his recommendation that our leaders assist their children in organizing themselves into the "Republic of the Schools." He urges earnestly that we take politics into the classroom.

CARROLL D. CHAMPLIN

*Pennsylvania State College*



### CURRENT PUBLICATIONS RECEIVED

#### METHOD, HISTORY, THEORY, AND PRACTICE

*Adapting the Secondary-School Program to the Needs of Youth.* Fifty-second Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, Part I. Prepared by the Society's Committee, WILLIAM G. BRINK, chairman. Edited by NELSON B. HENRY. Chicago 37: Distributed by the University of Chicago Press, 1953. Pp. xiv+316. Cloth, \$3.50; paper, \$2.75.

*American School Curriculum.* Thirty-first Yearbook of the American Association of School Administrators. Washington 6: American Association of School Administrators, 1953. Pp. 552. \$5.00.

BLAICH, THEODORE P., and BAUMGARTNER, JOSEPH C. *The Challenge of Democracy.* New York 36: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1953 (third edition). Pp. xiv+752. \$3.88.

BOARDMAN, CHARLES W.; DOUGLASS, HARL R.; and BENT, RUDYARD K. *Democratic*

- Supervision in Secondary Schools*. Boston 7: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1953. Pp. xii+558. \$5.00.
- The Community School*. Fifty-second Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, Part II. Prepared by the Society's Committee, MAURICE F. SEAY, chairman. Edited by NELSON B. HENRY. Chicago 37: Distributed by the University of Chicago Press, 1953. Pp. xii+376. Cloth, \$3.50; paper, \$2.75.
- DAVIDSON, AUDREY, and FAY, JUDITH. *Phantasy in Childhood*. New York 16: Philosophical Library, 1953. Pp. viii+188. \$4.75.
- The Function of the Public Schools in Dealing with Religion*. A Report on the Exploratory Study Made by the Committee on Religion and Education. Washington 6: American Council on Education, 1953. Pp. xiv+146. \$2.00.
- MARTIN, WILLIAM E., and STENDLER, CELIA BURNS. *Child Development: The Process of Growing Up in Society*. New York 17: Harcourt, Brace & Co., 1953. Pp. xxii+520.
- ODELL, C. W. *How To Improve Classroom Testing*. Dubuque, Iowa: Wm. C. Brown Co., 1953. Pp. vi+156. \$3.00.
- SIMPSON, RAY H. *Improving Teaching-Learning Processes*. New York 3: Longmans, Green & Co., 1953. Pp. x+488. \$5.00.
- STRANG, RUTH. *The Role of the Teacher in Personnel Work*. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1953 (fourth edition). Pp. xvi+492. \$3.75.
- TRAXLER, ARTHUR E.; JACOBS, ROBERT; SELOVER, MARGARET; and TOWNSEND, AGATHA, with the advice and cooperation of the PUBLIC SCHOOLS ADVISORY COMMITTEE OF THE EDUCATIONAL RECORDS BUREAU. *Introduction to Testing and the Use of Test Results in Public Schools*. New York 16: Harper & Bros., 1953. Pp. x+114. \$2.50.
- UMSTATTD, J. G. *Secondary School Teaching*. Boston 17: Ginn & Co., 1953 (third edition). Pp. xii+488. \$4.50.
- WITTICH, WALTER ARNO, and SCHULLER, CHARLES FRANCIS. *Audiovisual Materials: Their Nature and Use*. New York 16: Harper & Bros., 1953. Pp. xx+564. \$6.00.
- BOOKS FOR HIGH-SCHOOL TEACHERS AND PUPILS
- BRYANT, MARGARET M.; HOWE, M. L.; JENKINS, PHILIP R.; and MUNN, HELEN T. *English at Work: Course One*, pp. xviii+526, \$2.60; *Course Two*, pp. xx+522, \$2.60; *Course Three*, pp. xx+518, \$2.72; *Course Four*, pp. xviii+526, \$2.72. New York 17: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1953.
- The Greatest American Short Stories*. Edited by A. GROVE DAY and WILLIAM F. BAUER. New York 36: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1953. Pp. vi+394. \$2.60.
- HOGG, JOHN C.; ALLEY, OTIS E.; and BICKEL, CHARLES L. *Chemistry: A Course for High Schools*. New York 3: D. Van Nostrand Co., Inc., 1953 (third edition). Pp. xii+772.
- Industrial, Labor and Community Relations*. A Publication of the New York State Vocational and Practical Arts Association. Albany, New York: Delmar Publishers, Inc., 1952. Pp. viii+174. Cloth, \$3.75; paper, \$2.75.
- JARRETT, EDITH MOORE, and McMANUS, BERYL J. M. *El camino redl*, Book I. Boston 8: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1953 (third edition). Pp. x+580. \$3.40.
- JONES, EVELYN G. *Enjoying Health*. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co., 1952. Pp. xii+434.
- RAUBICHECK, LETITIA. *Your Voice and Speech*. A Revision of *Voice and Speech Problems* by RAUBICHECK, DAVIS, and CARLL. New York 11: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1953. Pp. xvi+376. \$3.24.
- SCHNELL, LEROY H., and CRAWFORD, MILDRED G. *Plane Geometry: A Clear Thinking Approach*. New York 36: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1953. Pp. xii+436.

- SCHNELL, LEROY H., and CRAWFORD, MILDRED G. *Solid Geometry: A Clear Thinking Approach*. New York 36: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1953. Pp. x+198. \$2.96.
- SHAW, HARRY, and SHAFFER, VIRGINIA. *McGraw-Hill Handbook of English*. New York 36: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1952. Pp. xii+386. \$2.08.
- Small Business Management*. Publication of the New York State Vocational and Practical Arts Association. Albany, New York: Delmar Publishers, Inc., 1952. Pp. vii+214. \$2.25.
- SMITH, T. V. *Building Your Philosophy of Life*. Life Adjustment Booklet. Chicago 10: Science Research Associates, Inc., 1953. Pp. 50. \$0.40.
- SMITH, VICTOR C. *Photography Workbook*. Philadelphia 5: J. B. Lippincott Co., 1953. Pp. viii+84.
- They Made America: *Stephen F. Austin, Father of Texas* by CARLETON BEALS. New York 36: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1953. Pp. viii+278. \$2.80.
- Webster's New World Dictionary of the American Language: College Edition*. Cleveland 2: World Publishing Co., 1953. Pp. xxxvi+1724. \$6.00.
- WILLIAMS, DOROTHEA M. *Building Health*. Philadelphia 5: J. B. Lippincott Co., 1952. Pp. xii+432.
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